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MICROPHOTOGRAPHIC EQUIPMENT[1]

AS LONG as cotton and sand hold out microphotography might be said to be safe. The one supplies film, the other the glass—film for base, glass for lens and lamp. It is the machines you want to hear about, but we may well look first into this food of theirs.

Motion pictures gave us our chance in more ways than one. They have provided an international conditioning to the acceptance of a substitute for life. You would not enter the playhouse if you could see reality outside. The drama was an initial preparation, but after all the pretenders in this case were flesh and blood. The screen, however, carries only lights and shadows, not even skin deep, and millions every night accept this filmy release. So we are not nearly so stubborn about tolerating the textual make-believe of reading machines as we might have been without the universal familiarity with movie projection.

To this same performer we owe the cheapness of our new carrier of the light sensitive material. We have had to alter the specifications, to be sure, in the interest of safety and permanence on the one hand, and of legibility on the other. We shift from cellulose nitrate, despite its superior flexibility, over to cellulose acetate, and thus get out of the gas and gunpowder range, while preserving nimbleness by keeping an eye to humidity. Film will not stand the 15 per cent that afflicts many of our living rooms. Nearer right is 50 per cent. Fortunately it is hygroscopic; that is, it will pick up the moisture of its neighborhood. A 52 per cent humidity at 68°F. can be obtained by keeping at hand a saturated solution of sodium dichromate, of which ten pounds can be had for $2.50.

Emulsion, the seat of the miracle, requires our particular attention. Here we are showing more and more divergence from motion-picture practice. Our emulsion may be fully sensitive to color, partially so, or

[1] Paper read at the second annual meeting of the Society of American Archivists, Springfield, Illinois, October 24, 1938.

color blind. That is to say, we can at will have our copy entirely faithful to the original; present it in black and white with, however, record of all stains or other imperfections; or, finally, by canceling these blemishes, we may show letters and background in sharp contrast. Thus, under the last choice, we may get a text more legible than the original, whether read in projection or in enlarged paper print made from the film. Or clarity may be secured by introducing a filter to block some color while others pass through. Further, by the use of infra-red sensitive film, we may recover lost text, such as due to censor, palimpsest, or charring by fire.

A camera's excellence may be largely nullified by adoption of inappropriate emulsion in a given instance. This is notably true in the case of high reduction. The emulsion consists of a silver salt suspended in gelatin. The finer the silver grains the smaller the characters that may be recorded there. A book page may require an 8:1 reduction; a newspaper, 18:1. But 50:1 is already attainable, as shown here today by a telephone directory page so reduced, *i.e.* to $\frac{1}{2500}$ of natural size. It is clear under the microscope.

Much experimentation is yet required before we reach the chart stage where we can instrumentally select the emulsion indicated as demanded by a given text and have any variations from page to page therein corrected at the camera by change of voltage. We are embarked on that path and sure to succeed.

Needless to say, the emulsion surface is subject to damage by scratching. A bit of metallic dust may play havoc. No satisfactory coating has yet been reported from Washington. Hence the necessity of careful storage and projection. Relief in this particular, however, has just appeared in an unexpected quarter, at least so far as second copies are concerned. This is a process of impregnating a transparent base with a "diazo" dye instead of covering it with an emulsion. This makes the image relatively safe from abrasion. It is too slow for use in the camera, but being grainless it gives exceptional contrast in prints up to very high degrees of reduction. It has the peculiar quality of yielding negative from negative and positive from positive. The processing is much simpler and the product cheaper than the emulsion type. It was first applied to cellophane but found unstable. More recently a cellulose acetate base has been tried. The results of accelerated age testing at the National Bureau of Standards "are indicative of a high degree of stability and in our opinion film of this quality is suitable for permanent records," I am privileged to report,

according to written advice from the director, dated September 21, 1938. Diazonium formulae are numerous but not all yield stable solutions. Hence testing is necessary in every case.

In processing, it is standard equipment that has thus far been employed in microphotography, though the same experimentation with tanks as with emulsions has to occur before procedure can be scientific and foolproof. There must be correlation between the two, of course, and with the camera exposures as well. Large commercial operators have continuous machines. Such a unit was hurriedly put together for University of Chicago use at the Paris Exposition in 1937 under the auspices of the American Library Association. Revision of this apparatus is under study. In this method, the film is driven by motor under cover through the various solutions and baths at fixed rates of speed and then delivered into a drying cabinet. Control is thus automatic throughout, and uniformity of results is more assured. Such machines must as yet be hand built and may thus be expected to cost around $1000. Only quantity production of film would justify acquisition of them.

Needless to say, the best results of camera and emulsion can be ruined by mistakes in the development. Fine as the grain may be and however highly corrected the lens, grains may clump in the solution if mismanaged. On the other hand, either contrast or tone of the film as delivered to the processor can at choice be improved there. You may sharpen or grade at pleasure.

If the first copy is excellent, then duplicates may be needed. These are currently made by contact print on film or projection print on paper.

Emulsion film duplicates are quoted at 5-8 cents a foot. Dye film ones ought to come much cheaper.

No satisfactory printer is yet in the market. Institutional laboratories are still dependent on either slow, cheap, amateur instruments requiring perforation of film and full stoppage during each exposure or adapted motion-picture machines, likewise requiring perforation, or commercial contract. Perforation is in microphotography a meaningless hang-over from cinematography. What we need is a continuous, nonperforate, contact printer. It has to be designed and built. The University of Chicago has had such a machine constructed and this is now undergoing final tests. A full description will be published at an early date.

Projection prints on paper in a 6″ x 8″ size are being quoted at

10 cents. This is less than half the present charge for photostats, though a general adoption of such enlargements would forfeit much of the economy of filming. They have their definite uses, however, and good apparatus for their production is a necessity. This is likewise not yet on the market. Enlargers giving excellent copy are available, to be sure, but none with a satisfactory mechanism for advancing film and paper automatically. Certain work is under way, particularly in the hands of a New York manufacturer, but once more we must await results a while. It is interesting to note, however, that projection printing on paper from microfilms can now be done on a photostat machine. A unit fashioned for this purpose is mounted in place of the usual lens and prism assembly. No reports of experience with this late attachment are yet available.

And speaking of photostats, there is no reason why we may not produce paper miniatures directly on a microfilming camera adapted for the purpose. The cost of 70 mm. paper would be about the same as 35 mm. film but yield copy of quadrupled area, well within the range of hand or desk lenses. Individuals might prefer this, especially in field work, and it could be kept either rolled or flat.

Granted now that the new medium promises faithful reproduction which costs little and will last, can we use it? We must admit that utilization means have not advanced as fast as the camera and its train, though there is no reason to doubt ultimate satisfaction.

We turn either to a reading machine or, as just seen, to paper enlargements, though wall projection and magnifying glasses remain available. In the first case there has till now been no choice, at least for institutions. Only two machines have stayed in the market and both have had to be bought if all types of film now produced were to be read with reasonable convenience. Taken together they have fallen short of satisfaction. The one, using an opaque screen and thus reflected light, is the Recordak Library Projector—Model IX, manufactured by the Recordak Corporation, a subsidiary of the Eastman Kodak Company, Rochester, New York, and sold at $185. The other, employing a translucent screen and, therefore, direct light, is the Argus Microfilm Reader, manufactured by the International Research Corporation, Ann Arbor, Michigan and now sold at $87.50.

The Recordak was designed with newspaper films particularly in mind. Only a little over half a single frame, *i.e.* a quarter of a newspaper page can be seen at one time, but this is viewed at about 33⅓ per cent above natural size, and the other three quarters are brought

lightly into command by a skimming arm at the side. This arrangement suits columnar material in high reduction or texts with two pages set in single frame dimension across film. But if the lines are laid down in the other direction and in medium or low reduction, the instrument is ill suited to use, because having no rotating head it forces the reader to use a window at the side to get the lines horizontal to him, and having only one ratio of magnification (22x) it blurs the lines by excessive enlargement. Even in newspaper consultation scanning is slow. It is a well built machine, however, easy to manipulate, and considerate of both eyes and film.

The Argus, on the other hand, was designed with periodicals particularly in mind. Here the magnification is limited to twelve diameters and so can show high reduction material only in reduced size. It accommodates lines laid either direction, since the head rotates, and by raising a panel therein it can be instantly converted to wall projection. In this instance, however, the film must shift position in order to correct the reversal following the elimination of two mirrors. This is a neat looking instrument of good focusing mechanism and for low reduction work the lens definition is adequate. In view of its more attractive price and likelihood of wide use, certain improvements might make the machine more satisfactory. Thus:

1. A better screen, since the present one of plastic material has shown a tendency to warp. A superior ground glass screen is promised.

2. Bevel gears for the film spools to be faster (60 seconds required now to advance the film 100 feet with reasonably fast turning, though the company claims 40 seconds), and be more sturdily mounted, as in fact the company now promises.

3. A platform for viewing short strips. Contemplated.

4. A control to hold pressure plates open for easier cleaning and for facilitating the loading and unloading of film. To do a good job now you have to take the head apart, for a soft cloth (not a handkerchief, please) drawn between the flats will remove only loose particles not gelatin or other sticking substance.

5. The film advancing crank in a less tiring position, though the change would add considerably to the cost of construction, and thus most people would doubtless choose the lesser evil.

6. A simple, inexpensive spring brake action on the "dead" spool to correct tendency of film to jerk and tightly wound spools to unreel.

7. Improved rotation of the head in the latest model, especially through metal doors swinging further back, is acknowledged, and the

lower price of the machine excuses the awkward position of the head when accommodating film at right angles.

8. Rotation of film guiding spools, though this would add to cost and is not of the same necessity in a machine limited to film with double perforation or an equivalent amount of space on either side of the picture area.

9. A change whereby the condenser mount is smoother and film insertion can be more readily effected is another pleasant acknowledgement for the newest model.

The company lists several changes of minor importance but attributes the advance in price from $75.00 to $87.50 chiefly to "an improved method of centering the lens elements to give a flatter field and finer correction of spherical aberration," but we have to observe that spherical aberration in the lens still requires an adjustment of focus to correct from good center focus to good edge focus, and this necessity for refocusing prevents the use of the machine for the making of enlargement prints where any considerable detail is required.

In other words, you simply cannot get everything you want in a projector at a typewriter price till at least quantity production is allowed.

As this article goes to press four new projectors are being demonstrated and announced ready for late summer distribution. Three are floor models aiming at universality. All have larger translucent screens, capable of showing a full newspaper page somewhat reduced. All have wide range of instant magnification, and all accommodate film printed either direction. But no price will be under $200. These are offered respectively by the Recordak Corporation (350 Madison Avenue, N. Y. C.), Holbrook Microfilms, Inc. (33 W. 60th St., N. Y. C.), and Graphic Service Corporation (663 Beacon St., Boston).

The fourth is *sui generis*. This machine, invented by Albert Boni (of the publishing firm at 26 W. 56th St., N. Y. C.) and to be sold by his Readex Microprint Corporation, aims primarily to accommodate miniature print on paper up to an 11-diameter minification. The instrument is, therefore, a reflector rather than a projector, but it can handle at least strip positive film and perhaps in the final design roll positive film as well within such reduction limit by placing a sheet of paper beneath the film.

In this process an octavo sheet of paper would carry a hundred pages. The steps are filming, cutting of film in strips, and then either

printing with a plate made from this collective film or directly on "diazo" paper. This invention bears close watching, since it offers publication at low cost. The price of the Readex is $100.

The individual in his office will be pretty well served for $42.50 by an Argus projector manufactured by the Society for Visual Education, Chicago, Illinois, and provided by Eugene B. Power, of University Microfilms, Ann Arbor, Michigan, with a supplementary lens, film advancing mechanism, and spools. This requires a dimly lit place and a screen three or four feet away.

We have now backed to the entrance and reached the camera, which merits climactic consideration, since its product has been found usable and indeed epochal. Here America has registered a striking success by introducing full mechanization. It was this accomplishment that justified last year's demonstration at the Paris Exposition.

It all began with a banker's desire for copies of his depositors' checks. His camera taken over by the Eastman Kodak Company and improved to meet this desire is now widely used not only in banks, but in department stores for statements, insurance companies for application records, etc. For three years the Bank of England has been filming its commercial paper and storing in safety outside. During the recent war scare, demands for such service could not begin to be met. It was this instrument that copied the NRA and AAA Hearings —some 300,000 pages at a little over $400 for upwards of a dozen subscribers, the 2,600,000 cards of the Veterans' Administration index for the National Archives at a cost of $2000, and the 34,000,000-card index of the 1900 federal census with reduction in floor space from 7000 square feet to 50.

The next step was to build such a rotary camera to accept large loose sheets. Hence the filming of more than 80 newspapers currently, with the number steadily increasing. The charge is 11 cents a film foot, or 8 pages, for the negative and 5 or 6 cents for the positive, according to number of subscribers. Thus the five-year war file of the *New York Times* sells for something over $400—about the price of the wood pulp issue when bound or half that of the all-rag edition.

Step 3 was to devise an instrument for handling bound volumes. This camera unlike its predecessors will be put on the market in the summer of 1939 and fortunately at three prices according to the nature of the mounting. This announcement is highly significant. It is this camera that is engaged in copying the population records of the Census Bureau from 1790 onward. An excellent instrument to

the same end has been hand-constructed for several government libraries and for the University of Chicago by Dr. Rupert H. Draeger, of the Medical Corps, U. S. N. This is the instrument used so strikingly in the Bibliofilm Service at the U.S. Department of Agriculture Library and by the University of Chicago at the Paris Exposition last summer.

Meanwhile the generality of institutions have come to be served by a $295 (formerly $265) camera designed, manufactured, and sold by the well-known optical house, the Folmer Graflex Corporation, of Rochester, New York, under the name, Photorecord. This is a portable instrument that weighs 45 pounds when packed in its case, which also serves as base in photography. This camera aims to secure the maximum of mechanization consistent with portability. It carries an easily removable magazine for 100 feet of 35 mm. film, which is handled in either single or double frame. Film advance and exposure respond automatically to 20-lb. pressure on a foot bellows operating in a pneumatic cycle. The necessity of such pressure and its attendant standing position can now be avoided by acquisition of a motor compressor provided as a $50 accessory. A book cradle with plate glass lid for bringing bound volumes to a plane can also be had at $60.

As this camera carries so many of our hopes and gets wide adoption, the Eastman organization, for example, accepting it for distribution in Europe, it was important that certain faults developing in steady usage be remedied. It is a pleasure to say that in the interval between the presentation of the present paper, when these faults were listed, and the time of going to press, most criticisms have been met by the extensive changes made in the instrument. These include a new sliding type vernier focusing scale, a new lens, a heavy duty shutter, and various improvements in the magazine. The changes effected are well worth the $30.00 charged for them. It remains only to add that the new lens, like the old, is satisfactory for medium and low reductions, but not for the high reduction required in newspaper copying; that the new shutter is sturdier but can be improved yet; and that while the support had not only best be squared by means of a keyway or other device and calibrated to eliminate the measuring tape but be of a rack and pinion or screw type, since critical adjustment with rod and clamp is tedious and difficult, yet these changes would be costly and are more important in permanent laboratory installation than in portable operation. The delay in meeting this need is understandable.

There are other instruments, of course, built or building for special purposes but these have the center of the stage at present.

Thus there is clearly emergent a technique the most significant in the field of recording since the invention of the printing press five centuries ago. Fortunately they are not rivals but allies, the newcomer getting where his heavier associate cannot reach. With prices already a cent a page and much less for numbers or quantity, we can at last begin to descry swift massing of universal reserves at the hand that can therewith penetrate the unknown or otherwise break human bonds.

Homo sapiens is a great talker. He does too much of it for his own good. As Robert Frost says of the tree at his window,

> Not all your light tongues talking aloud
> Could be profound.

And I am afraid you archivists cannot be said to confine your efforts to recording him when he is "taken and tossed." But of the significance of record there can be no dispute. The future is constructed out of the past. If Death sweeps as fast as we can heap, most of our lives must be spent in rewinning the lost. But when the essence of us could crouch in record too low for his scythe we could then rise in accumulating strength from generation to generation. So it is in the ten thousand years of writing that we have scored more than in the remaining half million of our divergence from the beast. Any device for safeguarding the record from dust and giving it mobility is a friend of man. In this service no more gallant a figure has appeared in five hundred years than Microphotography.

M. Llewellyn Raney

Director of Libraries,
The University of Chicago

THE TRAINING OF ARCHIVISTS IN THE UNITED STATES[1]

THE Committee on the Training of Archivists originally owes its existence to the writer's appointment as chairman in 1936 with instructions to appoint a committee and to bring in a report with recommendations for the training of archivists. The writer requested Professor Herbert E. Bolton, Dr. R. D. W. Connor, and Professor Theodore C. Pease to serve with him. All three gentlemen accepted. The chairman later requested Professor Ralph H. Lutz, director of the Hoover War Library, to serve on the committee and that gentleman accepted the responsibility.

After some preliminary deliberation, conducted by correspondence, the committee accepted the proposal of Dr. Connor that in constructing a plan for the training of archivists in the United States we should pay particular attention to the practice of foreign, particularly European, countries, whose extensive archival history affords a larger volume of experience than is available in North America. We have not had the time to pursue a thorough investigation into the general history of the training of archivists. Indeed a monograph on this subject is a very appropriate task for an American historian today. Nevertheless, the perusal of some special literature and the travels and observations of the different members of the committee afford the following general statement.

Early in the nineteenth century it was the custom to designate as chief of archives some literary or historical personage generally considered as an ornament to the nation, who could draw from this post sustenance for his own support and leisure for the pursuit of literary or historical activities. This custom still prevails in certain countries, notably Spain and those of Latin America like Brazil, Peru, and Chile. Archival subordinates were generally selected from persons trained in jurisprudence rather than in history. Advance toward formal special training for archivists was registered during the latter half of the nineteenth century by a tendency to select archivists more and more from the ranks of historians, and more and more from historians who had had a formal university training in historical criticism and paleography. In France the Ecole des Chartres became the predomi-

[1] In its original form this was a committee report presented by Mr. Bemis at the second annual meeting of the Society of American Archivists, Springfield, Illinois, October 24, 1938.

nating influence (if we exclude always mention of political favoritism, as we do in these paragraphs).

In England, archival appointments appear to have been made from plausible university graduates, of highest standing, who had passed the general examinations for the civil service; upon appointment they were thrown into an apprenticeship of copying documents, preparing inventories, indexes and calendars, and assisting in the general processes of publication. The classical basis of the English civil service together with this type of apprenticeship, divorced as it is from any intensive preliminary training, does not appear to have borne ill results, as can be testified by any American scholar who has used the admirably organized and serviced Record Office or the manuscript rooms of the British Museum.[2] In Austria it was the instruction afforded by the Institute for Historical Research which, in the second half of the century, began to supplant legal training of the universities in education for archivists. In 1895 the archival authorities resolved in favor of making all archival appointments from graduates of the Institute for Historical Research, which is a department of the University of Vienna; in 1927, an ordinance of the Austrian government declared it obligatory for all Austrian state archives to make appointments only from candidates who had been trained in the Institute for Historical Research and who had successfully passed examinations. In recent years the curriculum of the institute has included a special course of lectures on public documents as well as on diplomatics, paleography, and the conventional historical courses,[3] and *Archiv- und Bibliothekskunde.*

In Germany during the latter half of the nineteenth century, historians began to supersede jurists as exemplified by the appointment of Heinrich von Sybel by Prince Bismarck in 1875, as director of the Staatsarchiv and the beginning of the "Publikationen aus den preussischen Staatsarchiven." This was the beginning of the tendency to appoint historians as archivists with their staffs drawn from doctors

[2] For non-governmental and local archives custodians the British School of Librarianship and the Library Association give examinations under the title of "Paleography and Archives," covering the history, making, preservation, selection, and use of archives. Many of the questions employed, and material for the student preparing for the examinations, are published in H. G. T. Christopher, *Paleography and Archives* (London, 1938).

[3] For the history of the training of archivists in Austria, see Prof. Ludwig Bittner, "Die geschichtliche Entwicklung des archivalischen Besitzstandes und der Einrichtungen des Haus-, Hof- und Staatsarchivs," in *Inventare österreichischer staatlicher Archive, V.* Inventare des wiener Haus-, Hof-, und Staatsarchivs (Vienna, 1936), IV, part 4. Verlag Adolf Holzhausens Nachfolger, Wien.

of philosophy trained in the historical seminars of the German universities. In 1917 a decree of the Prussian ministry required for admission into professional archival service in the state archives the following:

1. passing the state examinations in philology;
2. a year's course of special training in the Prussian state archives, after which the candidate was usually obliged to undergo a year's apprenticeship in some "provincial" archive;
3. a reorientation in the set-ups for examination, to which university graduates were admitted;
4. extension of written examinations to analysis of medieval sources in Latin and German and of German and French documents, as well as an oral examination to demonstrate familiarity with archival practice, jurisprudence, and historical methodology.

From this rigorous requirement it was but a step to the organization in 1930 of a special Institute for Archival Science and Historical Training in the Prussian state archives in Berlin-Dahlem (*Das Institut für Archivwissenschaft und geschichtswissenschaftliche Fortbildung am geheimen Staatsarchiv*). This institute has the distinction of being the most serious and rigorous school of higher learning in the world for the special preparation of archivists. Requirements for matriculation are: intention to pursue an archival career, sound and personable health as attested by a state physician, and a degree of Doctor of Philosophy in history from some German university. Successful completion of the one and a half years' course is not a guarantee of appointment, although it is a prerequisite for appointment.

The curriculum assumes a general training in history, as attested by the Ph. D. degree, and an acceptable thesis; a training which must have included historical research and methodology, paleography, historical geography, legal history and *Germanistik*. Instruction in this school tends to be of a technical nature: further intensive work in paleography, training in use of historical sources of the Middle Ages, particularly dealing with the Empire and the Papacy, and practice in the critical examination of manuscripts, establishment of their authenticity, significance of their content, etc.; chronology; genealogy; heraldics. The candidate is then initiated into some experience in the preparation of manuscripts for editing and publication. His final examinations include not only these subjects but jurisprudence, economic and social history, German fine arts and the Polish language. The organization and curriculum of this institute are most interesting

for those of us who plan the organization of curricula for the training of American archivists, but, of course, this particular technical background, while essential to German archivists, is not indispensable for American archivists. The rigor of the qualifications and the technical excellence of the curriculum, including, as it does, the element of apprenticeship, in association with professional archivists, is a model toward which our instruction might strive as an ultimate goal.[4]

In Spain the state archives have been staffed by government appointments, made in a hit-and-miss manner from likely university graduates with a background of legal or historical studies. A few of these appointees have been very fortunate choices, developing into distinguished and scholarly archivists. The same may be said of Italy, which has produced that eminent leader of archival "science," Signor Casanova; and of the Latin-American countries. In the Argentine today the Instituto de Investigaciones Históricas is making its influence felt for the best in archival appointments, changing the emphasis from a legal background to historical training after the fashion of European practice.

The reader will note the relatively small stress placed by the best foreign practice on so-called library science, and the overwhelming insistence on historical erudition, scholarship, constitutional and legal history, all this emphasizing the particular country concerned, and linguistic accomplishment in the relevant documentary fields. It is the historical scholar, equipped now with technical archival training, who dominates the staffs of the best European archives. We think it should be so here, with the emphasis on American history and political science. A course in "library science" would be useful, particularly for purposes of cataloguing and for the arrangement of libraries auxiliary to archival practice. But there is a distinct danger in turning over archives to librarians who are not at the same time erudite and critical historical scholars. They tend to put the emphasis upon cataloguing and administration, on mechanics rather than archival histology and the sacred *principe de provenance*, to which they are usually oblivious. We have recently witnessed some distressing examples of the decimal system turned loose in government archives. Originally the archives of the Mexican Ministry for Foreign Affairs

[4] For the history of the training of archivists in Germany, see the article by Albert Brackmann, director of the Prussian state archives in Berlin-Dahlem, "Das Institut für Archivwissenschaft und geschichtswissenschaftliche Fortbildung am geheimen Staatsarchiv in Berlin-Dahlem" in *Archivalische Zeitschrift*, 1929-1931, Dritte Folge, Siebenter Band der Ganzen Reihe 40. Band, pp. 1-16. (Munich, Theodor Ackermann, 1931).

were built up in the conventional order, by countries and ministries from which the documents issued. It is today the custom in some foreign offices, as in the United States Department of State since 1906, to classify the documents by subjects according to a decimal system of cataloguing. Legations abroad, and all officials in the ministry, are instructed in this new filing system which has its superior advantages for administrative purposes, although it presents difficulties for the historian. The archivist, however, has only to adapt himself to this system of filing when it begins, when the documents begin to flow in by the new order. But in Mexico a very efficient and zealous archivist, trained in modern library methods, has reorganized the archives of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs according to the decimal system applied *ex post facto,* completely scrambling up the archives which hitherto had been conserved and used according to the old order. It is as if one took a printed book and rearranged the paragraphs and pages in alphabetical and sub-numeral order according to the items of the index! Impressed by the assiduity of this young man, the Mexican government has given him and his disciples carte blanche with the decimal system into one departmental archive after another, with results paralyzing alike for the historian or the administrator. This *ex post facto* application of the decimal system is likely to wreak further havoc at the hands of librarian-archivists. In archival science the librarian can play a useful role, more useful than is admitted in European practice, but it should always be a subordinate role.

After review of foreign practices, and consideration of the peculiar needs of American archives, the following conclusions seem warranted.

At the outset it might be stated that in the training of archivists it is possible to distinguish between two groups: the first, or more exalted group consists of persons seeking education and training for the position of responsible archival direction in major municipal, state, and national archives. These might be designated as archivists of the first class. Such persons should be recruited from the level of training required for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in American history, according to a preparation based on a curriculum which will be set forth briefly below. The second group will consist of archivists of small municipal divisions, county, state and special commissions, authorities, and establishments of minor political significance, as well as archivists for business firms, corporations, banks, and other private

enterprises. It is conceived that this class of archivists would require a less formidable and scholarly preparation, one equal to that of the Master's degree in the social sciences, with a support in library technique. In the remarks below, each of these groups is separately considered.

Group 1. Archivists of the first class. To begin with, candidates for such training should have received a college education, specializing in the social sciences, including a reliable knowledge of the American political system and its historical development, together with the history of the United States and a broad knowledge of modern history and international relations. A reading knowledge of French and German acquired in undergraduate days is of good value for graduate work where these languages are indispensable for the first class archivists. As for graduate instruction to include a university training for archivists, it is suggested that a special instruction for those who intend to enter into archival work might be easily grafted on to graduate instruction in American history in any first class American university. The existing instruction in American history, leading to the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, offers fundamental elements for a sound preparation for archival careers, but the student intending to go into professional archival work should be directed into a thesis which would cause him to handle manuscript material of some considerable range and out of official archives, thus affording him training in such problems of diplomatics and paleography as can be associated with American history. In pointing up a course of graduate study in history designed to meet the needs of archivists, a course, or courses, should be introduced on the history of archives, and on archival practice, past and present; and the student should be made acquainted with the special literature dealing with archival work, particularly abroad, and notably in Germany, France, Holland, and England. It is believed that one comprehensive course could include all these subjects and that such a course might be indicated as a substitution for another course which the graduate student might otherwise have taken. A course containing the elements of library practice, including classification and cataloguing, is also recommended. Teachers should insist further upon an absolutely uncompromising stand for competent knowledge of French and German as indispensably necessary for the matriculation of any student who intends to go into archival work. Spanish also would be desirable. These languages, par-

ticularly French and German, are indispensable for adequate study of archival practice abroad. Associating the training of archivists with work for the doctorate in American history will afford to the student some latitude of choice for a later career: after he receives the degree, if he does not prefer to go into archival work or does not find the proper opportunity to do so immediately, he would still have an avenue of teaching American history open to him, and vice versa.

The writer remains much impressed by the German example of apprenticeship as a part of the course for the training of archivists and believes it worthwhile for those universities embarking on such a curriculum to consider the possibilities of a voluntary apprenticeship with the National Archives at Washington, or with appropriate state archives.

Group 2. Archivists of the second class. As a graduate training for the second group of archivists mentioned above, it is believed that a two years' course of training on the level of the Master's degree should be erected on an A.B. degree in the social sciences—the same pediment for graduate work for governmental archivists mentioned in class one. The courses taken in graduate work should include special seminar instruction which will evaluate and appraise documentary materials and courses in American local government (in particular state and local documents), economics and sociology, with special attention directed to the records and particularly public records which exemplify these subjects. Before or during the two years of graduate work in history or political science there should be a selected course from the school of library instruction, particularly in the federal and state documents, bibliography, classification and cataloguing, supplemented by practice work designed to fit all the matters together with special reference to archive practice. It should be possible for competent students to graduate, if they desire, from this Master of Arts work into the Ph.D. work for archivists of the first class above described.

The quantity and quality of Ph.D. instruction in American history makes it possible easily to insist upon the Ph.D. degree for the profession of archivists of the first class, but that it might be too rigorous an imposition on young persons who wish to support themselves in such work to insist that they be given Ph.D. training for archivists of the second class; these could content themselves with the requirements for archivists of the second class.

For the great majority of the average candidates for the archival profession the graduate training above suggested will be of the greatest value, indeed indispensable; but the writer does not wish to dismiss the possibility of promising young men and women rising by hard work and self-discipline and study from the very lowest ranks of archival employment to the top, even without formal university training. After all, education is self-education. Universities and teachers are helps and short cuts to success in determined efforts for self-education and personal advancement.

SAMUEL FLAGG BEMIS

STRATEGIC OBJECTIVES IN ARCHIVAL POLICY[1]

THOSE unacquainted with the problems of archival science often think of archivists as people of extraordinarily narrow interests, whose eyes are trained on the most remote past. The insiders realize that the archivist is a man of the future, and not of the past; he is professionally preoccupied with a more distant future than that of any profession save that of astronomy; and he cannot lay down sound policies in the preservation and destruction of documents without taking into account interests broad enough to make up the composite fields of the faculty of a liberal arts college.

I think we understand this among ourselves, but the people at large do not as yet share our vision of the role of archival policy in American culture. We have among ourselves our little technical problems, such as the question of the distinguishing between archives and manuscripts: we cannot expect the public to be very much interested in technical minutia; but we can expect the public to become conscious of an archival problem generally, to assist in laying down a broad archival policy, and to share our vision of the place that the preservation of records has in the whole culture of our country.

In our conception of the place of archives in American culture, we might well keep before our eyes the role of the public library system. There have been public libraries for many centuries. The American public library system made a phenomenal growth a generation ago with the impetus of the Carnegie fortune behind it. The archival system of this country is now entering a similar period with the launching of the National Archives, the work of the Historical Records Survey, and the organization of the Society of American Archivists fostering it. The public libraries had as their primary problem the procurement of books, with cataloguing and organization secondary; the archival materials are already on the ground, and the essential problem is organization and preparation for use. The libraries could count on the public school system to provide a literate population which could take advantage of their resources; in the development of the use of our public archives, we will find that people will not only need to have the materials preserved and organized for them, but must also be taught to use them. True, libraries often offer reading counselling

[1] Paper read at luncheon conference of the Society of American Archivists, Chicago, December 29, 1938.

services; a fully developed archives may have to go much further than the library in teaching people to use it.

Of course it would be possible to dodge all these problems if we should adopt as a foundation of archival policy the idea that only the professional scholar would be welcomed, or possibly that only the professional scholar would be served. But to take such a view would be to miss our great opportunity. I hold that even the most amateur genealogist ought to be welcomed in our archives, and the people should be allowed to browse through old legal records. The public should learn to expect in the archives of its own community the same kind of reference service that its public library gives. A check of the questions asked at the reference desk of the Cleveland Public Library indicates that a substantial proportion of them is the type of question that can be and should be answered from archival records. If we develop such a policy in the utilization of our public archives, we will not only find the voters willing to provide the buildings and to employ the technicians needed to give these services, but we will also find our people increasingly interested in private as well as public archives. I am told that the late Harvey Firestone was planning to establish just such an institution for the history of his firm and of the rubber industry as McCormick has set up in Chicago and placed in the competent charge of Herbert A. Kellar. The more archive-conscious our people become, the more such establishments there will be.

A public interested in public archives will extend its interest to private archives. Have not many of us been consulted at one time or another on the disposition of the papers of some person deceased? We could imagine it might become a matter of routine, that just as one consults the funeral director on the disposition of a body, so one would consult an archivist on the disposition of the papers. This kind of consultation is now given in innumerable cases by secretaries of historical societies and by librarians.

Parallel to the development of a consciousness of the importance of family papers, we should hope for an increased consciousness of the importance of business archives. Here also technical advice will be needed and should be available. No one should apply in vain to the archivists of this country if he wants to know what to preserve, what to destroy, how to deposit, and how to organize the documentation of family or business firm.

When I link the profession of archivist with that of the librarian, of the business counsellor, and of the funeral director, I see the out-

lines of a profession which must build up not only a high level of technical competence and a high standard of service, but a clear-cut ethic which can deal suitably with problems that arise in the protection of the privacy or secrecy of what ought to be private and secret, and the servicing of information that ought to be publicly available. There are many fine points of practice to be defined. In some cases the archivist with his feeling for values to be realized in the very remote future may advise the sealing of the documents for very long periods; in other cases he may advise their destruction. His responsibility toward American culture on the one hand, toward the families or organizations whose records are involved on the other, should in time come to be defined in a kind of a code, so that a duly certified archivist can claim the confidence of a client just as members of the medical or legal professions claim the confidence of their patients and clients, and just as journalists protect confidences as a part of the code of their profession.

For instance, there is the case of a scholar working in the field of literary history. Among the private papers of an American author, he discovered coded letters. He cracked the code and found that these letters contained a record of a personal scandal which incidentally completely explained the origin of one of the most important literary works of this author. The scholar had been allowed to consult these papers through the courtesy of the author's family. When he made this discovery he was, of course, under an ethical obligation to suppress the truth that he had discovered so far as present publication was concerned; was he also under an obligation to inform the family of the compromising character of the documents he had discovered, knowing that these documents would then be destroyed by the family and a certain significant fact lost forever to American cultural history; or should he have returned the documents without explaining his discovery to the family, confident that the papers would then be preserved because of the ignorance of their contents; or should he have explained the documents to the family and endeavored to persuade them to preserve them under long-term seal?

In developing archival policy in the field of business records, the archivist meets a professional enemy in the office manager. With office management he must reach a working agreement. According to a president of the Office Managers Association, one of the first things that an expert does when he comes into an old-fashioned office and begins to modernize it is to segregate and destroy records not cur-

rently in use. In one case a roomful of files was found in a business firm. "What are these dead files doing here? Why don't you throw them out?" asked the expert. "Our legal department advises us that we must keep them," was the reply. "Well, get another opinion from your legal department and throw them out," said the office manager.

It may be that microphotography will facilitate the archivist's work in that it will make possible the preservation of more records in less space, but certainly that will not be the whole answer. The archivist must interpret to a business client the value of business history in the formation of business policy, and compromise with the needs of office management by careful distinction between the destroyable and the preservable records.

The archivist ought to be qualified and ought to be trusted to handle matters of this kind, and to function as a public relations counsel for the relations of the people of today with the historians of future centuries.

The archival interest as the public comes to understand it must be broad enough to include family and business papers no less than public archives, but leadership lies in the public archives field. At this particular moment we have come to a turning point in policy. Hitherto we have been principally worried because we knew so little about the state of our public records; now they are all being inventoried. The inventories, made with unprecedented thoroughness and accuracy by the thousands of workers in the Historical Records Survey, are describing a body of documentation equal in amount to the contents of our public libraries, and just as widely distributed through the country. With our knowledge of what we have, we can begin to study the question of how it is to be used. It would be a mistake to think that the use of our archives is merely to provide documentation which scholars can work into books. We must think of it also as a place in which teachers in our schools will read for interesting information to be used in their classes; we must think of it as a reference room in which whole classes of questions—such as the date of this, the cost of that—will normally come for answer. The Social Security Act has given rise to many very practical reference questions in connection with the claims of people who do not possess birth certificates.

The public archives of a community can become a kind of local encyclopaedia, and the public can be taught to use it. The people generally will then come to be shocked by the destruction of records

that ought to be preserved just as they are shocked by cruelty to animals and as they are coming to be shocked by cruelty to automobiles. Have we not seen a generation growing up so sensitive to machinery that bearings burned out for lack of oil, or gears stripped through senseless handling, offend their sensibilities even though the car is not their own, just as their sensibilities were once offended by the teamster flogging his horse? Certainly there are many of us who already feel deeply concerning the destruction of unique and irreplaceable records, but that feeling is not yet sufficiently widespread to guarantee the adequate support of public archival activities, let alone the adequate preservation of business and family records.

We must hasten that time, and to hasten it we must expand the public use of archives; and to expand the public use of archives we must do more than make inventories. We must classify, develop, and define archives for purposes of general use. What is the next step? I have already suggested it in setting the parallel between the archival system and the library system. The libraries are already collaborating with the schools; let them now enter into a three-cornered combination with the local public archives. Let us take the inventory of the public archives of some community which already enjoys good library facilities; get a group of librarians who know the kind of question that the public brings to the library to help us in defining and analyzing the kind of questions that the public might bring to the archives if the archives is ready to answer them. We will find that certain of our archival series are not adequately indexed for reference purposes; we may be able to get them indexed. We find that others to which the public might wish to refer are housed in inaccessible cellars and attics; we may get them properly housed. When we have found by conferring with librarians what kinds of questions people would be interested in answering from archives, let us secure the co-operation of the libraries and the schools in informing the public of what they can find in their local public records.

We might perhaps assume that our scholars who are engaged in research in the social studies and other fields are already familiar with the wealth of archival material in this country, but I doubt that this is true at present, for the archival establishment, national and local, is a little to new to have had its effect on professional research. It is possible that the study of our archival resources in each of our research fields would lead to a diversion of much research energy from working with books to working with unpublished public records. At

least this inquiry should be made and we should recognize the fact that American scholars generally have been far more extensively trained in the use of libraries than in the use of archives. It is quite possible that a whole new set of problems will come to the fore as research problems when the availability of archival resources is better understood. We might think that this matter could be left to the sociologists, the economists, or the historians, and that theirs might be the initiative; but I think it would be wise to take the lead and to present the problem of the use of archives to the scholars of this country in the form of the very practical question: Which of these classes of archival materials, which of these specific series which our inventories exhibit, ought to be preserved for you and your purposes; and which would you be willing to see destroyed? It may be that only the experts in the different fields of research can answer these questions; on the other hand, only the archivists can ask them.

I noted a case in Cleveland in which a graduate student was about to undertake a little research work on a problem of relief policy. The task was organized just as the inventory of county records was completed. Of the fifteen hundred series of county records exhibited in the inventory, fifty series that he had not previously known about or planned to consult were found to have a bearing on his problem.

I believe that a study of our problem from this standpoint may show that the traditions of the archival craft were defined in connection with the control of bodies of record so much slighter than those that now confront us that a new approach to the science may be necessary. The bulk of the records of the Hundred Years' War between France and England was probably equalled every day in the conduct of the World War.

The new archival rules ought quite properly to evolve after clearing the questions of value, destruction, preservation, and control, with all interests. These interests include the public, whose needs can best be interpreted by the public library; the research scholars, who can interpret their own needs; and of course, the administrative users of the records, with whom there is already adequate consultation.

Just as the public archives are the immediate center of attention, so of the public archives those that are found throughout the country are the most important, for it is only through them that the whole public can be reached and taught.

This means that above all else, the strategic objective of archival policy at this time must be to work with the relief labor program to

develop and improve local archives. The Historical Records Survey has amazed the scholars of America by the competence and thoroughness of its work. The kind of thing it is doing can be carried further.

I do not regard the use of relief labor as an emergency, as an occasion of the moment, but as a probable permanent feature of American cultural economy, intermittent, of course, but recurrent in times of depression. And the natural and normal occupation of the white collar worker on work relief is with the archives, with the public records.

For who is the white collar worker? He is essentially the clerk. I mean by this the clerk in the historic sense, the descendant of those clerics whom Alcuin trained for Charlemagne in the free schools of Aix. He is the worker who works not with tools but with people and records. The old economy of medieval Europe used him for this purpose, and modern business economy uses him in the same way. Instead of copying manuscripts he copies invoices; instead of preaching sermons and hearing confession he sells refrigerators. But he is and will continue to be an essential part of our population, and there is no advantage in trying to retrain him for nonclerical labor during a depression, for when employment rises, clerks are needed by private industry just as much as hand laborers are needed.

The archivists are in a position now to plan for the recurrent use of quantities of labor that will help to make the archives useful to a wide public. This is one of the most important duties that faces archival science at the moment. It is a problem never posed before.

Just as librarians promote the use of books, and as teachers defend before the public the value of education, so archivists have as a part of their duty to give stimulus and guidance to the use of archives, and to their use not by the few but by the many.

The objective of archival policy in a democratic country cannot be the mere saving of paper; it must be nothing less than the enriching of the complete historical consciousness of the people as a whole. If we, as archivists, accept this as our problem and our duty, our profession will grow to be comparable in cultural significance with librarianship, teaching, and the professional research of scholarship. That time is a long way in the future, but, as I have suggested, the archivist is and ought to be concerned with the most distant futures, and less than any other professional man in the country can he afford to be hesitant in defining long-term objectives.

Robert C. Binkley

CATALOGUING AT THE NATIONAL ARCHIVES

THE Division of Cataloguing of the National Archives has been working for three years on the problem of cataloguing archives, years of study and experiment in which all members of the staff of the division have participated. Many problems remain to be solved, many details of procedure will doubtless have to be changed, but the system which has been evolved in these three years seems well enough developed to warrant description for the benefit of those who may be facing similar problems.

The catalogue is designed to serve primarily as a guide to groups of records, not to single documents, although the system will permit the addition of cards for single documents to the catalogue if that should later prove desirable. Series or groups of records are listed in the catalogue under names of government agencies, persons, and corporate bodies, under subjects, and in some cases under the titles or forms of the records. Main entries are made under the names of the agencies whose archives are described on the catalogue cards, while added entries are made for the other items just mentioned. The catalogue has been planned to complement the classification schemes prepared by the Division of Classification. In these schemes the arrangement is by government agencies and their subdivisions, and thereunder by type of record. While the catalogue also lists records under the names of agencies, its greatest value is in the added entries which bring out the names and subjects that cannot easily be located in the classification schemes without such aid. Material on the same subject or concerning the same person or organization in the archives of the various government agencies is thus brought together in the catalogue.

Since archives are being catalogued in groups rather than as individual documents, it is necessary to determine first of all how they shall be grouped for cataloguing purposes. As the first step in cataloguing, entries are made by accession units. The archives received under one accession number are described in one entry, which can in most cases give only a general idea of the collection. The information for this accession cataloguing, as it is called, is obtained from the identification inventories and the reports prepared by the Divisions of Department Archives. The cataloguer examines the archives to get any additional information regarding subjects and names which may

be required for this type of cataloguing, but often the condition or size of the collection makes this impossible. An extensive study of the collection by the cataloguer at this time would be unwise, because it is desirable to get an entry for the collection into the catalogue promptly after its receipt, and because a detailed examination will later be made by assistants in other divisions who arrange and classify the material. The catalogue cards for these accession units are considered to be temporary cards which will be removed when the collection is catalogued in detail.

The detailed cataloguing of archives is at present of two types, termed "division cataloguing" and "series cataloguing," and is undertaken after the material has been classified and placed in the stack equipment. The cataloguer uses as the bases for cataloguing the units designated in the classification schemes and also examines the records to obtain information on details, particularly on subject matter, which cannot be given in the classification.

Division cataloguing groups all the records of a government subdivision, such as a division, office, or section, describing the records of that subdivision as a unit. When this type of cataloguing is done it becomes necessary for the user to consult the classification scheme when he wishes to see the list of individual series. Division cataloguing is thus more detailed than accession cataloguing, wherein the records of many different subdivisions of a government agency may be grouped under the name of the agency without indication of the subdivisions.

Series cataloguing uses as the unit of entry the records comprising a single series. It makes possible a much more detailed description of the material and results in a great many more entries for a given collection than does division cataloguing. Because it takes much more time and labor than division cataloguing, series cataloguing probably can never be applied to all the collections in the National Archives, although that procedure might be desirable. At the time the detailed cataloguing of a collection is begun a decision is made regarding the type of cataloguing to be done. Division cataloguing is chosen if no great loss in subject or name approach to the material is caused by grouping series together in one entry. If the series in the collection are on a variety of subjects, or include the names of many important people and organizations that warrant entries in the catalogue, series cataloguing is chosen. However, if the records come from an agency still in existence and performing the same functions continuously,

division cataloguing may be impractical because it is not sufficiently flexible to permit the addition to the catalogue of many new entries for material received later from the same office.

Document cataloguing, that is, cataloguing which uses a single document as a unit for entry, is possible in this scheme, but probably will only rarely be done. Usually the approach to individual documents will be made through indexes, not through the catalogue, which is primarily a guide to series or groups of series.

In form, the catalogue resembles quite closely the catalogues of books found in American libraries. Entries are made on three- by five-inch cards following the unit-card system, whereby a master card is made for each series or group of series, and duplicates of that card are filed under various headings. The catalogue is a dictionary catalogue, that is, it combines entries for government agencies, personal and corporate names, titles, and subjects in one alphabet. Two copies of the catalogue are in existence at present; one, known as the Public Catalogue, is in the reading room, the other, called the Official Catalogue, is in the cataloguing work room. A plan for the preparation of departmental catalogues for the various stack collections is now being considered. If adopted, it will mean that each depart-

Justice Department. Attorney General.

* Ch., p. 587.
* Cummings & McFarland. Federal justice.
* Govt. Man., 1937.
* Rev. Stat. 346-387.
* Stat.L., v.1, p. 93; v.12, p. 285; v.16, p.162.
* Leland & Mereness, p. 137-38.

Authority Card

mental collection will have a catalogue made up of entries for the archives in that collection and for the archives in other collections which are related to the work of that department.

The catalogues contain several types of cards. Authority cards are used only in the Official Catalogue. They are typed on salmon-colored

card stock and give the sources in which the cataloguer has found information concerning the form of names used in the heading or the history, organization, and functions of a government agency. References made from other forms of the name to the heading used are traced on the back of this authority card. Since this card is entirely for staff use, the citations given on it are usually in abbreviated form. A list of abbreviations for the frequently used sources is kept near the Official Catalogue.

History cards, also typed or duplicated on salmon-colored card stock, are used in both catalogues. They give a summary of the history, organization, and functions of the government agency named in the heading. It is hoped that they will give the user a better understanding of the records listed under that heading, and make it unnecessary to give explanatory notes concerning changes in the organization and functions of the agency on the catalogue cards proper.

Bituminous Coal Commission.

Appointed by the President on Dec. 19, 1919, and composed of three members, one serving as chairman. The purpose of the Commission was to investigate and adjust matters in the controversy between bituminous coal miners and operators which had resulted in the strike of the miners in 1919.

The Commission was disbanded by Executive Order No. 3249, dated Mar. 24, 1920, which provided that, upon the signing by the miners and operators of the agreement specified in the award of the Commission, the members should be relieved of their duties.

History Card

Cards for accession units are typed on blue card stock in order to emphasize the fact that they are temporary and that they contain very general descriptions of collections about which, in many cases, detailed information is lacking at the time this first cataloguing is done. Since they represent material very recently transferred to the National Archives the items on the cards differ in some particulars from those given on the division and series cataloguing cards. They include the titles of the most important series in the collection or a general title descriptive of the collection as a whole, the dates of the files, the amount of records in linear feet, the former location, the

accession number and the date on which the material was turned over to the National Archives. At the bottom of the card appears the list of headings to be added to the cards. Because these cards for accessions are made before the material is classified they can have only the symbol for the agency as a call number.

NAVY Compensation Board.

Correspondence, cost-plus contracts, and inspection reports on cost of materials and labor in building and equipping vessels for the Navy at private shipyards. 1917-1929.
2,735 linear feet.
Formerly located on the 3d floor, Factory Bldg., Naval Torpedo Station, Alexandria, Va.
Accession No. 148. Feb. 1, 1938.

1. Ships—Construction.

Accession Cataloguing Card

Cards for division and series cataloguing are duplicated by the Multilith process on white card stock. Subject headings are typed on them in upper case letters, all other headings being typed in lower-case letters. In both division and series cataloguing the tracings for headings to be added are given at the bottom of the card, and the accession number appears in the lower left margin.

The cards for division cataloguing are similar to those for accession cataloguing, in that they describe groups of series rather than single series. They are made after classification and arrangement of the records, thus permitting greater accuracy and more detail than is possible in accession cataloguing. They are usually for smaller groups of records than those described in accession cataloguing, so the titles often include the names of all the important series in the group. The dates of the files are given as well as the amount in linear feet. Additional description is given when it is necessary to show the relationship to other series, or to indicate the content of the material. The call number, which is taken from the classification scheme, gives the symbol for the office or other subdivision of the government agency, but does not give the symbols for the individual series included in the group described on the card.

FA Food Administration. Educational Division.
12HA Correspondence, press releases, office memoranda, and printed material on the education of the public in food-conservation principles. 1917-1919.
106 linear feet.
Includes indexes to the press releases.

4 1. Food—Conservation—Publicity. 2. Press releases. I. Allen, Ben S.

Division Cataloguing Card

In series cataloguing the full call number assigned to the material by the classifier is given in the left margin of the card. The text of the card includes a title, usually manufactured by the cataloguer unless the series is one with a well established title of its own, the numbering if it is a numbered series, and the dates. The size is shown

NCLOE National Commission on Law Observance and
2A Enforcement. Secretary.
C3 Statistical analysis of deportation proceedings for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1929, and of procedure cases for May-June 1930, by Reuben Oppenheimer. 1930-1931.
1 linear foot 3 inches.
Includes abstracts of case records of the Immigration Bureau, arranged numerically, 1-453 and 1-30.

8 1. Deportation. I. Immigration Bureau. II. Oppenheimer, Reuben.

Series Cataloguing Card

by giving the length in linear feet and inches of the space which the series would occupy if it were set up in the way books are shelved. Since the height and width of the documents in a series often vary greatly within the series, and also because the size of the volumes, sheets, or slips gives little indication of the amount of text, no other

measurement is given. A descriptive paragraph gives further details about the type and form of the records, their arrangement, and relationship to other series. Indexes are listed on the cards for the series to which they pertain.

In planning and carrying out the work, rules have been developed in order to insure uniformity in cataloguing details. The rules have been typed on sheets that are assembled in loose-leaf notebooks. Separate sets of rules have been compiled for the various types of cards mentioned above, and for the different types of headings used in the catalogue. When these rules have been more thoroughly tested in the daily work and have ceased to be considered tentative, as they now are, it is probable that they will be made available for general distribution. In matters of style the rules of the Government Printing Office are followed.

One important section of the rules is concerned with the forms of headings for United States government units. The names of such agencies are given in inverted form, omitting the words "United States" at the beginning of the heading. In this way the concentration of entries under "United States," and under such terms as bureau, committee, department, is avoided. Only administrative bureaus or offices are entered as subdivisions of a department. All other major bureaus and offices are entered directly under their own names with references from the department. As examples these headings may be cited: Commerce Department. Personnel Division, and Census Bureau. In the first case the administrative office is entered as a subdivision of the department; in the second, the bureau is entered directly and a reference is made from the department. Subdivisions of major bureaus and offices are entered as subdivisions of those agencies, for example: Census Bureau. Agriculture Division. References are made from the subdivision to the heading used.

The determination of the form of heading for government agencies is much less difficult than the choice of the agency to be given the main entry. The general rule is to make the main entry under the agency whose archives are described on the card. This would be a simple rule to follow if frequent changes in name and organization did not complicate the matter. As it is, a series may include the records of an agency bearing different names, some or all of which appear in the records, and having different administrative relationships at different periods in its history. Because changes in the form of the records do not always correspond with the changes in name and organization,

it is practically impossible to make hard and fast rules. If the name of an agency has changed, but its functions and organization have been the same under the various names, the entry is made under the most recent form of name, and references are made from the earlier names. If, however, the change involves major changes in function or organization the entry may be made under the earlier name, providing the records themselves have been kept separately in the two periods. For example, the Bureau of Immigration and the Bureau of Naturalization were united in 1933 to form the Immigration and Naturalization Service. The change is more than a change of name, since the organization was changed by the merging of the two bureaus. If possible, the records of the two earlier bureaus should be entered under their respective names. This can be done if the Immigration and Naturalization Service started new series of records when it was established. If it continued to file papers in the series which had been established by the predecessor bureaus it may be unwise to attempt to distinguish the series of the two earlier bureaus, since it would mean duplicating the entries under the earlier and later names. If only a few such overlapping series exist, duplicate entries may be made, and the records of the predecessor bureaus will be separately listed in the catalogue. Each collection of records must be carefully studied in connection with the history of the agencies concerned before a decision regarding the entry can be made. If the archives are those of a continuing agency, it may be necessary to study the records still in the custody of the agency as well as those that have been transferred to the National Archives.

Since it is impossible to follow a hard and fast rule for entry, references must sometimes include explanatory statements to avoid misunderstanding. With such references and the history cards for government agencies it is hoped that difficulties due to the nature of the material will be partly overcome.

The assignment of subject headings for archival material is also difficult. The number of subjects covered by a series varies greatly, and the different types of cataloguing increase the complications. One series may be limited in subject scope and can be given a very specific heading. Another series may include material on many subjects and may therefore have a general subject as a heading. Yet the amount and value of the material on a specific subject may be greater in the latter case than in the former. Accession and division cataloguing, because they describe large groups of records, as a rule require sub-

Navigation and Steamboat Inspection Bureau.

For records of the Bureau of Navigation and the Steamboat Inspection Service, predecessors of the Bureau of Navigation and Steamboat Inspection, see

Navigation Bureau (Commerce).
Steamboat Inspection Service.

Explanatory Reference

ject headings that are less specific than those used for individual series. Consequently, the user must be guided from the specific to the general subject in some cases. Explanatory references may be used for this purpose, if the ordinary "see" reference does not seem adequate.

NATIONAL BANK NOTES.

Material on this subject will be found among the archives entered in this catalog under the heading CURRENCY.

Explanatory Subject Reference

While the Library of Congress list of subject headings has proved to be a very helpful guide in the choice of headings, it cannot be followed in detail, especially in the matter of subjects entered under or subdivided by the heading "United States." As the material in the National Archives relates almost wholly to this country, entering it under "United States," or using "United States" as a subdivision

would only cause unnecessary complications in the catalogue. Headings for material concerning parts of this country or concerning foreign countries will be subdivided by place names, and thus will come after the entries in the catalogue for material on the United States under the same subject.

Subject headings for forms of archival material, such as vouchers, contracts, and pay rolls, are being used freely as an experiment. If series cataloguing could be done for all the collections this use of form headings might be avoided, because, in this type of cataloguing, the titles are constructed to bring the forms together under the name of the agency. In accession and division cataloguing, however, several forms may be included in a single entry, which makes this grouping by form under the name of the agency impossible. For that reason certain more important forms are now given subject entry. If they prove to be useful the policy will be continued.

In order to assure consistency in the use of headings for subjects a card list of subject headings is kept. The cards show the form of heading adopted for a subject, the authority for the choice of that heading, a definition if that is necessary, and references to related headings. They also list the references made from other headings or terms to the heading used.

This description of cataloguing at the National Archives is limited to the work with paper records. Catalogues of motion pictures and sound recordings and of printed books and pamphlets in the library are also in progress. The problems involved in the cataloguing of these materials are also many and varied, warranting separate discussion. The Division of Cataloguing is also engaged in indexing work which should be described in another paper. With experience in various types of cataloguing and indexing, and with different forms of material, one fact stands out above all others, that plans and rules must be made flexible enough to fit every contingency. Useful as they are for giving guidance, rules cannot take the place of the intelligent study of the material to be catalogued and the application of good judgment in the process of cataloguing.

John R. Russell

PROBLEMS OF ARCHIVES CLASSIFICATION

AMERICAN practice has, out of long experience, established the basic significance of library classification. Many schemes and techniques of library classification, and various administrative forms for carrying out these techniques, are used, but the underlying definition is generally accepted.

Library classification is the assignment of a book to its place in some predetermined logical scheme of subject matters, and the assignment to such a book of a subject matter symbol representing its place in the scheme.[1] The function of library classification is twofold (and this is much more true in American than in European practice). First, it determines where a book shall be physically shelved, not only so that it may be found, but so that it shall, for the convenience of readers, be found in proximity to other similar books in association with which, presumably, it will often be used. Second, by the use of subject matter symbols, it provides a handy record device useful in the making of catalogue cards, the making and filling of calls for books, etc. The classification scheme may be the Dewey Decimal system, the Library of Congress system or any one of a number of others; the administration of classifying activities may be vested in a separate library unit or be attached (as is often done) to the cataloguing unit. In any case, the generalizations above set forth still hold.

Archival practice in the United States is still young and flexible enough not yet to have laid any such systematic groundwork of recognized definitions and accepted functions. It is—or should be—still testing out concepts of archives classification with an open mind as to what kind of classification work, if any, is best suited to the conditions peculiar to archival economy.

As formulated above, library classification work is based on three elements:

1. A predetermined logical scheme of subject matters and a system of symbols representing the elements of the scheme
2. The physical arrangement of material in accordance with this scheme
3. The finding of material by means of this scheme and of the physical arrangement based on it

It will be noted at once that the second of these elements runs

[1] Cf. *Webster's New International Dictionary*, second edition (1938): "A system or schedule classifying the field of knowledge for the purpose of arranging books, etc., in classes."

counter both to archival theory and to the practical conditions of archival work. The physical arrangement of archival material is governed theoretically by the principle of provenance (*respect pour les fonds*). Practically, it is governed by the fact that the most important users of archives are, first, the agencies of origin, and, second, other agencies of government; and by the further fact that arrangement of archives by agency of origin provides the least arbitrary or artificial form of arrangement and the most widely known symbolism for general content. Last but not least, this is the minimum condition upon which agencies of origin will usually surrender their records.

An example *ad absurdum* may clarify these statements.

Let us suppose that a classification "personnel records" has been set up. Such a classification is in conformity with our provisionally assumed definition of a "predetermined logical scheme of subject matters." The setting up of this class, however, and the assignment of certain records to it cannot contribute to "the physical arrangement of records." Were all records of a personnel nature to be placed together (as, in a library, all books on personnel problems are shelved together), instead of finding a Division of State Department Archives, of Highway Commission Archives, or other administrative *fonds*, we should find government records grouped within an archives establishment as "personnel records," from all government agencies, as "accounting records" from all government agencies, as correspondence" from all government agencies, and so on; the principle of provenance would be violated.

This principle has overriding practical considerations in its favor. The first duty of an archives establishment, after preservation of records, is to hold them in readiness for official use. This, it may be noted, is especially true in American archives establishments, so large a part of whose records are relatively modern and therefore invested with an administrative value for the present equal to—if not greater than—the purely historical value which attaches to so much of the older European collections.

It is, therefore, as a purely practical matter, more efficient to have a center in an archives establishment for, e.g., State Highway Commission records, rather than for personnel records from whatever agency of origin. This provides for the State Highway Commission itself, the easiest access to its own personnel records, and in most if not all cases for other agencies interested in some particular item

or group of the commission's personnel records—as, for example, the Compensation Board for State Employees or the office of the civil service commissioner. Such experience as has been had at the National Archives indicates that the principal calls by government agencies on collections of the functional type like our example are calls of a fairly specific—not general subject matter—nature, based on some fairly specific administrative or functional need.

However, we must not fail to consider nonofficial calls. These may be considered as of two sorts for the purposes of our discussion. One is the case of the private searcher interested in a specific personal history. "What was my grandfather's rank in the Union Army at the time of his discharge?" "Was my late husband's claim against the Interior Department for travel allowance ever finally decided?" "Is there any record of a previous conviction against John Doe?" These are typical questions whose answers may appear in personnel files. In every case, the initial clue is to the agency of origin of the relevant papers.

The other type of nonofficial call may be of a general, intellectual or academic nature. Dr. Richard Roe comes to an archives establishment for material for his researches into "Personnel Problems in Government Employment," for example.[2] This is a type of call which might conceivably be better dealt with by a center for personnel records than by a congeries of centers for agency records. Actually, however, the advantage would probably not be great. Dr. Roe cannot work on the whole body of personnel records at once and will in any case have to apply himself to personnel records agency by agency. Furthermore—and this is a point of great general practical importance—he will find in many, if not in most, cases that personnel records alone do not suffice for his purpose. He must go to related correspondence files of the agency, to fiscal files, to organizational files of office regulations and orders, etc. And in many cases he will find that the indexes he must use are general indexes to the central files of particular agencies, which cannot be broken up to accompany segregated *fonds* of personnel records, budgetary records, etc.

It is unnecessary to labor the point further. It has not been the intention here to make a case for agency centers of archives within an archives establishment, as against what might be called functional

[2] This general type of call may, of course, come from an official source as well—as, e.g., in the case of a legislative investigation.

centers. The principle of provenance and the empirically determined practice of archives establishments have already made this case impregnable for as far ahead as we can see.

The purpose has, rather, been to clarify the relevancy to archival economy of the second of the three elements above provisionally assumed to be the basic components of classification work.

The position to which our discussion has led us may now be summed up as follows: "The physical arrangement of material in accordance with a predetermined logical scheme of subject matters" (element 2 of our premise) is not a viable concept or technique in archival economy. It must also be true, then, that "the finding of material by means of this scheme and of the physical arrangement based on it" (element 3 of our premise) is equally not a viable concept or technique in archival economy.

With its two practical consequences thus eliminated, element 1 of our premise obviously requires careful scrutiny. This element was: "A predetermined logical scheme of subject matters, and a system of symbols representing the elements of the scheme." This concept we may find it profitable to examine from a tangent.

Let us first consider what, in general, actually happens to bodies of archives, as they are assimilated into an archives establishment, in the way of giving them names and local habitations.

In many cases, the matter of naming and placing collections that have been received is simple. Records are received from a given department of government, they are transferred under an adequately descriptive title, and they come in good order. An actual example, from the experience of the National Archives, is a numerical file of personnel records from the Immigration and Naturalization Service, Department of Labor. The process of naming and placing such a collection is one of recognition, not of classification as hitherto defined.

Other cases are somewhat less clear. Again we may cite an example from experience in Washington. The Bureau of Labor Statistics, Department of Labor, transfers a collection of employment schedules. But it becomes clear upon study of the history of the papers that other agencies had a share in the creation of this collection, and questions arise as to the ascription of a name and place to it.

Or the Department of Justice transfers a number of collections which are accordingly named and placed; later on a small group of papers is found which seems to have originated in another agency.

Research shows that this group found its way into the larger body by a series of accidents occurring during a period of "dead storage"; the group is replaced and renamed accordingly.

A last example: From War Department quarters comes an unorganized collection, long inactive; it is known to contain the records of certain wartime boards and agencies, but study is required to determine just what record groups belong to each. Physical disentanglement must be undertaken before an assignment of names and placements may be made.

Now the question is, are these activities classification? The answer must be in the negative, if we apply the formula hitherto employed, that is, the assignment of records to a place in "a predetermined logical scheme of subject matters" and their identification by "a system of symbols representing the elements of the scheme."

The activities we have just described are determinations of objective fact, not applications of an intellectual scheme. Within the framework of our present definition, we have not classified records of the Immigration and Naturalization Service, Department of Labor, when we recognize them as such. We have not classified the records of the wartime Board of X when we have recognized them as such and segregated them from the welter of records of boards A, B, C and D.

This analysis may be carried a step further. The records of the Board of X are of various sorts. Some are in the form of letters, some are vouchers, some are the schedules and tabulations of a research problem in munitions supplies, and so on. Various types of evidence make it possible to group these records into what might be called "series"—evidence such as physical contiguity, recurrence of some original filing-system symbol, some specific record found outlining the organization of the board or information procured from a veteran employee of the board whose memory may be trusted.

These activities, again, are not classification within the framework of our present definition. To recognize correspondence as such, vouchers as such, schedules as such; to determine by research what correspondence, what vouchers, what schedules originally constituted a unitary subgroup or series of records; to make a physical arrangement or rearrangement of records on this basis—these activities are determinations of objective fact, not the applications of an intellectual scheme.

There is, therefore, a choice: either the type of activities we have described are not to be regarded as classification, or we must redefine

classification for archival purposes in a fashion which entirely rejects any analogy with library terminology—which, indeed, departs even from dictionary definition.

A new definition of archives classification, to cover these descriptive activities, might run as follows: The objective determination, by the appropriate techniques of legal and historical research (when necessary), of the agency[3] of origin and agency or agencies of custody of a group of records; and the similar determination of the functional types of records represented in the collection, and their boundaries, temporally, geographically or otherwise objectively delimited.

It would be well to give concrete form to this necessarily complex formula. The steps it envisages for the classification of any minimum group of records involves determinations as follows:

1. Agency and subagency of custody
   Department of Labor, Immigration and Naturalization Service (e.g.)
2. Agencies and subagencies of previous custody
   a. Same department, Bureau of Immigration and Bureau of Naturalization
   b. Department of Commerce and Labor, same bureaus
   c. Department of the Treasury, Commissioner of Immigration
3. Agencies and subagencies of origin
   All of the above, under 1 and 2a, b, c
4. Functional type of records
   Personnel records, including related correspondence
5. Temporal limits of records[4]
   1900-1904 (five-year group)
6. Geographical limits of records
   Port of New York
7. Final delimiting description of records
   Deputy Commissioner John Doe's special file

The new definition is a lengthy one, and the process it describes is intensive. This increased scope, as compared with the old formula, is significant. We may evaluate its significance in a final comparison with library technique and thus with the library definition of classification work.

To begin with, classification of the library type is an exercise in taxonomy. Under it, the question asked is not "What is this item?" but rather "What kind of item shall we call this?" In the archival procedure outlined above, only the first question is asked.

[3] In "agency" here is included subagency, subunit, etc.

[4] From this point the breakdowns are hypothetical, in order to carry out the full implications of the new formula.

Next, the skills and the facilities required by the two formulae are very different. The library classifier must have the ability to construct a frame of reference (the classification scheme itself) of general applicability, to extend or to contract this scheme as circumstances require and to make the very subtle discriminations that sometimes separate economics from history (for example); these are the basic skills involved. The facilities needed are few: access to the item to be classified and to the taxonomic scheme, to be sure, in addition to basic works of reference where technical distinctions (e.g., chemistry, physics, biology, biochemistry, biophysics, physical chemistry) have to be made.[5]

The archives classifier who operates the intensive scheme outlined above must, in contrast, have at his command a comprehensive range of techniques and facilities. Most obviously, he must have the temperament and training of a historian, for in the most general terms, his work is that of piecing together the historical evidence which identifies individual records, groups of records and record-producing agencies. His knowledge about his records must approach that of the responsible officials who created and used them, for only intimate acquaintance can assure the accuracy of his description of subject matter and organization. He must, therefore, have not merely access to the records, but close and continued contact with them. He must have access to and contact with not only the records themselves, but with the laws, regulations and practices governing the creation and functioning of the agencies from which the records come. Familiarity with the personnel of these agencies as it existed at the time of the creation of the records is often the key to puzzling archival situations. It is highly desirable, too, in order properly to describe records and place them in their setting, to have some acquaintanceship with the subject matter they cover and the literature thereof, as labor economics, the history of business regulation, diplomatic history, etc.

In short, taxonomic, library-type classification is a generalized and extensive function, having very little technique in common with other library functions. Descriptive, archival classification (if we elect to use the term) is highly specialized and intensive, and its research techniques have much in common with those which must be performed for custodial and reference functions as well.

Thus far, although we have traversed much ground, we have

[5] It is not intended by this hasty characterization to minimize the importance or difficulty of this type of classification.

raised only one question: Which of two definitions of classification shall we accept for purposes of archival economy, and what are the implications of each?

Now we may raise another: If we accept the new, intensive, descriptive formula, how shall we implement it in archival organization in view of its scope—by centralization in a classification unit or by decentralization throughout the agency centers of an archives establishment?

For centralization, it can be argued that uniformity may thereby be better secured. But in the nature of the case, there can be little uniformity among the descriptions of records produced by widely differing governmental agencies. The assignment of consistent—not uniform—symbols to groups of records, when described, may be the limit of uniformity possible.

For decentralization, it can be argued that the objective determinations required are then made by the agency centers which are in constant contact with the respective collections and which are required to make these determinations in any case for other purposes.

But since we are dealing here so much with the hypothetical, we may leave this question unanswered—the more so, since the answer must depend, logical and theoretical considerations notwithstanding, on such objective factors as the size, scope and complexity of a given archives establishment. But although we must here refrain from a categorical answer, the question will be a crucial one in any archives establishment and cannot there be evaded.

One further point should still be raised. Can any generally applicable "predetermined logical scheme of subject matters" be devised for archives and would any purpose be served thereby?

The devising and application of such a scheme may or may not be deemed "classification," according to the choice we make between the formulæ discussed above; and we should be free, upon adopting such a scheme, to centralize or decentralize its administration on a basis similar to that already suggested.

In our own discussion here we have from time to time found it convenient, in the course of offering illustrations, to refer to "personnel records," "correspondence files," "fiscal files," "organizational files," "schedules and tabulations," etc. These terms may be called "type-names," because, while it is a matter of objective determination to place any given group of records under one of these headings, the headings themselves are of general applicability. If a set of such

type-names could be devised which covered descriptively the whole field of archives, we should then have something closely approaching classification of the library type, lacking only easily imaginable symbols.

Would any purpose be served thereby? Experience suggests that the answer may be in the affirmative. One of the earliest functions which devolves upon an archives center having custody of records is to identify the collections which it holds, to determine the intermediate (subagency) record groups in the collections and to define the minimum record groups (perhaps to be called series) thereunder. This is a continuing function, always looking towards more exact and more descriptive identification. This activity is not carried on solely as an end in itself, but produces papers descriptive of "series," and lists of series.[6] These papers in turn record the identifications which have been made and make them available for further uses. They make it possible to say, not that a given record is available for a searcher, but certainly that there is available a "series" of a nature likely to include such a record; where it is a question, not of a given record, but of a given subject matter, that there are available "series" which might bear upon this subject matter; that in addition to a "series" or a record asked for and produced, there are other "series" of a nature likely to yield additional information. They do this not, of course, in most cases as a substitute for search upon the records; but usually they will narrow the physical scope of the search required. They may, therefore, be regarded as one of the keys to reference service.

Further, such descriptive papers and lists, especially where accompanied by historical and administrative data necessarily uncovered in the course of preparation, provide the material on which published descriptions of archives may be based, from which catalogue data may be drawn, etc.—again, not always by their employment as substitutes for examination of the records themselves, but certainly as leads for such examination.

All these and other uses of descriptive papers and lists of "series" might well be facilitated if instead of taking a random form (based, for example, on the physical sequence of "series") they were arranged by type-names—if they were, in short, in a certain sense of the word at least, "classified." Suppose that an inquiry comes in about hearing

[6] The first two steps in this process at the National Archives produce respectively preliminary identifications of series, and series identification reports.

transcripts of the Board of X, Southeastern Region. At least a lead into the search required—sometimes even a substantive answer—would be more easily procured if the list of series for the Southeastern Region group, Board of X collection, of records were arranged under standard rubrics one of which subsumed "hearing transcripts."

The problem then is to set up an inclusive system of rubrics under which all types of papers resulting from the work of all record-producing agencies of government may be subsumed.

In an experimental way, the following ten type-names, with definitions, may be worth considering:

1. Finding Media (indexes, docket books, catalogues, file classifications, *et sim.*)
2. Correspondence Files ("general correspondence files" where the agency of origin has set up a classified filing scheme, by subjects, into which all correspondence is put. The series under this heading will be based on date lines drawn through the file, geographical designations, senders' and writers' names, etc., if and as so constituted by the agency of origin or transfer. Descriptions should show which of the nine types of subject matters covered by this scheme are included, and such other description as may be helpful. Where there are correspondence series relating to any of the other subject matters covered by this scheme, if such series are not part of an organized general file, they should be grouped under the appropriate rubric as "Personnel Correspondence" under "Personnel," "Field Agents' Correspondence" under "Research," etc. Where subject matter dossiers have been created by the agency of origin or transfer which include correspondence, the series is to be listed under the subject matter rubric, and the description should include the words "and related correspondence")
3. Subject Files (general files including many or all types of records created by an agency, which were bound into a single "fonds" by the agency creating them, according to some filing scheme of its own. Correspondence items may also be included. Such files cannot be indexed under any other single heading)
4. Administrative Files (matter setting up procedures, general and special orders, organization charts, instructions, *et sim.*)
5. Personnel Records (applications for jobs, appointments, pay rolls, leave cards, severance notices, compensation matters, efficiency records, *et sim.*)
6. Fiscal Records (budgets, allotments, accounts, vouchers, *et sim.*)
7. Property Records (furniture, supplies, rental of quarters, transfer of property to field agencies, bids, estimates, proposals, *et sim.*)
8. Research Material (schedules, agents' instructions, tabulations and work sheets, reports, MSS, proofs, *et sim.*, where the object of the

research was scholarly, informational, promotional, etc. but had no specific bearing on operations)

9. Operational Files (records of the work done by the agency in the course of performing its specific functions, in the form of work done upon material things or for or to persons not in the service; in the case of PWA, for example, blue prints, specifications, construction orders, etc., issued in the course of erecting a building; or in the case of the Federal Trade Commission, proceedings had, evidence submitted, orders made, etc., in enforcing law upon citizens)
10. Information Files (marked books, near-print, mailing lists, etc.)

These type-names fall into four groups. The first consists simply of No. 1, "Finding Media," since this is a type of record of unique character whose importance to the user of records is usually such as to warrant giving it prominence. Next come two types of records which may be said to be "cross-sectional" for any agency or subagency in which they exist, dealing with any or all other types of activity represented by other types. Third come four types of records (Nos. 4-7) of an administrative or bureaucratic type; and finally three types of functional records.

If some such scheme should commend itself to the archives profession, to work it out—not only in respect to main headings of the above type, but to possible subdivisions—will be a task worthy of our best efforts. The difficulties it involves are clearly indicated even in the above crude sketch, for example in the length to which it has seemed necessary to go in defining type 2, "Correspondence." Another problem has been found to center about types 4-7, when administrative and personnel records are found to be part of a single "series," or where personnel, fiscal, and property records are found to be part of a single "series" whose emphasis is on the budgetary side. In such cases, the solution lies, perhaps, in employing combination rubrics, such as "4. Administrative, including Personnel," and "6. Fiscal, including Personnel and/or Property," as may be appropriate.

Certain highly specialized agencies of government also present problems. For example, it may be said that all records of a civil service commission are "5. Personnel," as all records of an independent controller-general are "6. Fiscal." This view would defeat the purposes of the scheme, however; and it would be more practical, without in the least violating the principle of the scheme, to proceed in these cases in a somewhat different fashion. The archives of a civil service commission would then be classified under the rubrics indicated, with

the records of its own personnel transactions subsumed in type 5; the records in its possession of the personnel of other government agencies would be subsumed under "9. Operational," since these records represent the commission's rule-making and other substantive-determinative powers over others than its own personnel.

A last difficulty in devising such a scheme seems to be the recalcitrance of judicial and especially of legislative archives to treatment under the same rubrics as the archives of executive and administrative agencies. This, however, may not be insurmountable; and in any case, if the problem is worth attacking along these lines at all, something may be gained by subduing executive and administrative archives to this kind of order.

In summary then, the following problems have been raised in this paper: Two definitions of classification have been offered. One, based on analogy with library technique, takes its departure from "a predetermined logical scheme of subject matters." The other takes its departure from "determinations of objective facts by research" descriptive of collections, subgroups, and "series" of a discrete nature.

With respect to the first, "scheme of subject matter" formula, we have seen that it does not make possible the same techniques in archival economy as in the library, because of the principle of provenance and no less because of certain practical conditions of archives work. We have also seen, however, that from the "scheme of subject matters" formula there may be saved a valuable residuum of descriptive technique.

With respect to the second, "determination of objective facts" formula, we have seen that it involves a departure from hitherto accepted concepts of classification, and that it coincides with much of the general organizational, descriptive, and research work of an archives establishment—so much so, that it becomes difficult to define classification as a sharply distinguished archival function.

With respect to both formulæ, we have seen that they have implications for archives administration which still leave problems after the choice between them has been made.

Paul Lewinson

The National Archives

REVIEWS OF BOOKS

Public Documents, edited by Jerome K. Wilcox, chairman A.L.A. Committee On Public Documents, with *Archives and Libraries*, edited by A. F. Kuhlman, chairman A.L.A. Committee on Archives and Libraries. Papers presented at the 1938 conference of the American Library Association. (Chicago. American Library Association, 1938. $5.00.)

This volume, a planograph production, is full of interesting information for archivist and librarian alike. Included are papers on the local archives program of the Historical Records Survey by Luther H. Evans, the manuscript program of the Historical Records Survey by Miss Margaret S. Eliot, the place of microphotography in the collection and preservation of local archives and historical manuscripts by Miss Margaret C. Norton. On the subject of principles for the selection of materials for preservation there are three excellent studies: In public archives by Dorsey W. Hyde, Jr., in historical manuscript collections by Miss Grace Lee Nute, in collections of business records by Arthur H. Cole. The organization and preservation of manuscript collections are treated in addresses by Herbert A. Kellar, Miss Gertrude W. Ackermann, Robert B. Downs, Arthur H. Cole, and Thomas P. Martin. Arthur E. Kimberly has a paper on the repair and preservation of public, archival, and private manuscript material.

Guide for the Description and Evaluation of Research Materials, edited by Robert B. Downs, Director of Libraries, New York University. (Chicago. American Library Association, 1939.)

This guide was originally compiled as a practical help to surveyors of library materials in the southern states, since no comparable work could be found. It indicates all the various books to be searched for, from encyclopaedias and dictionaries on into the detailed sciences or arts. Pages 7-9 contain certain brief suggestions as to dealing with American historical manuscripts and other manuscripts.

SHORTER NOTICES

The Eighth Annual Report of the Archivist, University of Virginia Library, for the Year 1937-38 contains as an appendix "A Checklist of Bound Business Records in the Manuscript Collections of the Alderman Library, University of Virginia." This list represents one phase of the archivist's activity in collecting Virginia historical materials during the past decade. The collections of ledgers, arranged chronologically by county, present an interesting cross-section of the state's economic life from the Revolution to recent years. Records of the "general store" are most numerous, but there are many others dealing with iron manufacture, tobacco production and sale, breeding of cattle and horses, flour milling, rural banking, general farming, and the uses and condition of slave labor. The descriptive notes reveal a wide variety of material of interest to the social historian. A few of the volumes listed are partly business, partly archival records of local officials. A detailed name and subject index is also included.

The *Inventory* of Asotin County, Washington, archives, number two of the state's series, is one of the latest additions to the publications of the Historical Records Survey. For the fifth smallest Washington county, this volume contains more than two hundred mimeographed pages. Ten maps trace the evolution of the counties from the territorial days of 1854.

A fire which destroyed the courthouse at Asotin, the county seat, in 1936, did only slight damage to the records since fireproof vaults housed all archives except those of the superintendent of schools, the county road engineer and the county nurse. At present the records are carefully and adequately preserved in vaults and safes in the remodeled building now serving as courthouse.

The survey was begun May 5, 1936, and completed January 22, 1937, by field workers under the supervision of Robert Stockbridge.

Nederlandsch Archievenblad, XLVI, 73-76, includes as part of its book review section an analysis by S. J. Fockema Andreae of the first numbers of THE AMERICAN ARCHIVIST. The following is a translation[1] from this analysis:

The development of archive economy in the United States of North America, to which subject Van Schilfgaarde recently turned his attention in this journal (XLV, 78), has brought with it the establishment of a society of archivists. This was founded in 1936. In 1937 it held its first annual meeting in Washington, D.C. In this year it decided to publish its own periodical, and so entered into exchange with our association among others.

We extend hearty greetings to our sister association in North America. The

[1] By Dr. Lester K. Born.

achievement of its establishment, under circumstances of whose problems it is difficult to form a precise concept in our pleasant little country, already deserves approval. Its first appearance is well designed to arouse confidence and interest. And it cannot be other than useful and convenient for us that the Americans, while preserving their own judgment, desire contact with European ideas and methods. "Europe," says the editorial board in the announcement of the periodical, "preserves a great body of archival lore gained from the practice and experience of the past. Slavishly copying it would be, for American archivists, an error second only to ignoring it altogether. Appraising it in the light of American conditions, letting the logic behind its practices suggest solutions of American archival problems, may make it most useful." The rule permits of reversal. The established archival instruction is almost entirely directed to handling of "old" archives prior to the present prevailing order. The problem for the Americans is the handling, wholesale and rapidly, of what, according to European opinion, are rather new, often even very new, archives. We also encounter that problem, so we, in our turn, will be able to profit by the experience of America.

America, that is, the United States (with which we are here dealing exclusively), has, first of all, in the capital city of Washington a great federal archives depository. Then each state has its own state archives depository, usually located at the state capital in or near the capitol, the administration building. The responsibility for the conservation is placed upon an archivist, with a staff, under the state secretary of state, or upon the state librarian, in which case a separate archives section is arranged under him, or upon the state historical society as a semipublic institution. The state archivist, whoever he may be, often has authority to inspect with regard to everything, including the current state and local archives, while rules concerning careful preservation, periodic sifting, and transfer of the archives are being made. The fact that the states are the legislators in this matter naturally prevents uniformity. However, the professional association of archivists can contribute much to the unification of action over the whole country.

A vigorous stimulus to the archival work was and is the unemployment relief. The "white-collar" division of the WPA, the American *Werkfonds*, has undertaken a description of American historical sources and, inter alia, also of the local archives. The results therefrom are already far advanced. The need for work projects has also had great influence on the building and organizing of archival depositories.

Splendid and practical new archives buildings are going up. One of these, that at Springfield, Illinois, is described by its archivist, Miss Norton. A stream of archives and archivalia of the most diverse provenience is already pouring into these buildings to demand admission. The quantity demands and justifies a rigidly prescribed treatment: first a physical treatment (described, in this periodical, for the federal archives by Arthur E. Kimberly), [in which] the

component parts are disinfected, cleaned (by air blown on them), put together and mangled or pressed (if loose sheets), and finally repaired, pasted together and put into usable condition. In this condition they come into the hands of the classifier and cataloguer—in large institutions such as that at Springfield, two different persons.

This is the place to remark that the American archives exhibit an independent, close connection with the other services of the state on the one hand, and, on the other, with the public libraries. This last aspect is especially important in cataloguing. Miss Norton explicitly states that most visitors and investigators are accustomed to work in libraries, and it is a convenience for them and for everyone if the archives depositories are, in so far as possible, arranged in a similar manner. Therefore it is also necessary, in her concept, to have in archive depositories a general card index in which the whole content of the depository is contained in systematic order, with the necessary references and with an alphabetical key, likewise on cards, to the subjects. Various references in the periodical, in particular those which do not deal specifically with this subject, indicate that this condition is, in fact, generally considered the regular thing. L. Herman Smith, who furnished an extensive contribution on "Manuscript Repair in European Archives," says (p. 56) of the Main Archives of the Kingdom in The Hague, "There is no card catalogue." (We say nothing here of even fuller keys, for example, of all names found in specific series. This work is also done, successfully, by "white-collar" unemployed.) With the systematic and alphabetical catalogues a class-catalogue, as in a good library, is still necessary. In the management of the stacks library practice is shown to be the norm. Smith, mentioned above, states that in The Hague "no slips are placed on the shelves to show where documents have been removed." Actually, this is a notable deviation from what customarily takes place in libraries.

In the case of such a cataloguing job—properly done only in wholesale inventorying such as is taking place through the WPA—one must of necessity run into difficulties. One must dare to solve them if one wants to reach results. Luther H. Evans and Edythe Weiner, the director and the editor of the Historical Records Survey, contribute an attractive report on the experiments which have been made in the cataloguing of county records, and of the results achieved therewith. The success can be seen from the many examples which they give. It is a respectable standard for the description of the archivalia of local magisterial institutions of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Miss Norton is developing almost similar rules into a system which will, in the meantime, be discussed at the meeting in Springfield. In the archives depository at Indianapolis almost the same methods of working are also being followed ("Indiana Archives," Christopher B. Coleman). Perhaps out of this agreement there will grow a manual for modern archives which will also be very welcome here.

In addition to the items already named the periodical also offers, inter alia,

a paper by Oliver W. Holmes, "The Evaluation and Preservation of Business Archives"; a contribution of Howard H. Peckham on the arrangement and cataloguing of a manuscript collection in the William L. Clements Library at Ann Arbor, Michigan; a paper by Herbert William Keith Fitzroy entitled, "The Part of the Archivist in the Writing of American Legal History"; and a survey by Charles M. Gates of [the subject], "The Administration of State Archives." Then [follow] book reviews, short communications, reports, and summaries of archive publications in both eastern and western Europe. These last rubrics it is planned to include as a regular feature.

We would like to go into greater detail in the case of various contributions, but we cannot do that without taking too much space in concluding. And then, since "the proof of the pudding is in the eating," American conditions and ideas should only be judged by one who has worked in the archives there and has seen the results in practice. Let us hope that such a critique can sometime appear in this journal. For one who wants to undertake this THE AMERICAN ARCHIVIST can be the best stimulus and guide.

NEWS NOTES

The Society of American Archivists

The Society of American Archivists will hold its third annual meeting in Annapolis, Maryland, October 13-14, 1939. Governor Herbert R. O'Conor is chairman, and Dr. Morris L. Radoff, recently appointed archivist of Maryland, is secretary of the Committee on Local Arrangements. Mr. William D. Overman, curator of history and archivist of the Ohio State Archaeological and Historical Society, is chairman of the Program Committee.

Tours will be planned to include many points of interest in the historic city of Annapolis. Meetings will be held in the Maryland Hall of Records and perhaps in the senate room of the old statehouse. The program will provide sessions dealing with the subjects of the publication of archival materials, state and local records, problems in archival administration, the care, classification and cataloguing of maps in addition to addresses following the luncheon and dinner meetings.

The headquarters hotel will be Carvel Hall. Rates will be $2.00 to $3.00 for single rooms and $3.50 to $4.50 for double rooms. Corner rooms with bath $4.00 single, $6.00 double. Suites of two rooms, bath and parlor are $9.50 double and $13.00 for four. There are a few dormitory rooms available at $9.00 for four, $12.00 for six and $15.00 for eight persons.

On Monday and Tuesday, June 19 and 20, as this number of THE AMERICAN ARCHIVIST was going to press, the Pacific Coast members of the Society of American Archivists were scheduled to hold a joint meeting with the Historical Records Survey and the Committee on Archives and Libraries of the American Library Association, under the chairmanship of Mr. A. F. Kuhlman.

The first session on Monday afternoon was to be on the general topic, "Some of the Next Steps in Archival and Historical Manuscript Work." Lieutenant Colonel J. M. Scammell was to report on the progress of the Historical Records Survey; Dr. Luther H. Evans to speak on "After the Historical Records Survey, What?"; Dr. Dorsey W. Hyde, Jr., to discuss "The Integration of Work with Archives and Historical Manuscripts," and Dr. Theodore C. Blegen to speak on "A Handbook for Community Historical Workers."

Mr. Leslie E. Bliss, librarian of the Huntington Library, San Marino, was to preside at the Tuesday morning meeting. Its program included a report on the manuscript collections in the Bancroft Library by Dr. Herbert I. Priestley; one on the Hoover Library at Stanford University, by Dr. Ralph H. Lutz; one on the Huntington Library by Mr. R. B. Haselden; and one on the Spanish archives at Santa Fe, by Dean George P. Hammond, University of New Mexico.

"Suggestions for a Code for Cataloguing" were to be considered at the luncheon meeting at which Mr. Frank A. Lundy, chief cataloguer of the University of California at Los Angeles was to preside. The speakers were to include Mrs. Evangeline Thurber, of the Division of Cataloguing, the National Archives, whose subject was "Archival Material," and Dr. Grace Lee Nute, curator of manuscripts of the Minnesota Historical Society, who was to discuss "Historical Manuscript Collections."

In the afternoon Dr. Herbert A. Kellar, librarian of the McCormick Historical Association was to serve as chairman of the session devoted to the "Use of Microphotography in Manuscript and Archival Work." The employment of microphotography in the Bancroft Library was to be discussed by Dr. Herbert I. Priestley, in the National Archives by Dr. Vernon D. Tate, in the Huntington Library by Dr. L. Bendikson, and in the Spanish archives at Santa Fe by Dean George P. Hammond.

Dr. Richard B. Morris, of the City College of New York, has been added to the personnel of the Society's committee on uniform state archival legislation, of which Dr. A. R. Newsome is chairman.

The Society will have a joint luncheon session with the American Historical Association during the latter's annual meeting at Washington, D.C., in December, 1939. The name of the speaker will be announced in the October issue.

Sixty Washington members of the Society met at a luncheon on May 6, at which Mrs. A. Norma Kilmartin, of the War Department, discussed the function of central files units, and other representatives of federal government agencies contributed remarks. Since a large share of the Washington members are filing officials or archivists in government offices, this meeting devoted to a consideration of their common problems proved most profitable. Special emphasis was given to the need for a basis of understanding and co-operation between officials who originally file records and the archivists who are ultimately to care for them. Dr. Jean Stephenson of the Department of the Navy, presided over the discussion. The luncheon was arranged by a committee under the chairmanship of Miss Dorothy Arbaugh, of the National Archives. It is hoped that a series of such gatherings can be conducted in the coming year.

The National Archives

Vernon D. Tate, chief of the Division of Photographic Archives and Research, will attend the Fifteenth International Conference on Documentation at Zürich, Switzerland, from August 10 to 13, as a representative of the American Library Association. Following the conference, Dr. Tate will study European methods of photographic reproduction. The *Academia de la Historia*

de Cuba, at its meeting in Havana on March 16, 1939, unanimously conferred the rank of *Académico Correspondiente* in Washington upon Roscoe R. Hill, chief of the Division of Classification, in recognition of his work as a historian. During a recent European trip, Frederick P. Todd of the Division of War Department Archives visited the Public Record Office in London and the military archives establishments in Copenhagen, Stockholm, and Berlin. Miss Irene A. Wright has resigned her position in the Division of Reference to accept an appointment in the Division of Cultural Relations of the Department of State.

Papers concerning the Burr conspiracy and the preparations to try Aaron Burr and Harmon Blennerhassett in the United States Circuit Court at Chillicothe, Ohio, in 1808, have been transferred to the National Archives from the United States District Court for the Southern District of Ohio. The documents date from 1805 to 1808 and include the recognizances of the defendants given at Richmond, Virginia, following the trials there; the bills of indictment returned by the Ohio grand jury, charging Burr and Blennerhassett with high misdemeanors; and various evidentiary papers.

Experiences of the American privateer *Yankee* in African waters are described in a fragmentary log found among customhouse records in the National Archives. The log covers the period from October 9, 1814, to January 20, 1815, and tells of several naval engagements and of a visit to Boa Vista, one of the Cape Verde Islands. Also of interest to students of American maritime history is the receipt by the National Archives from the Bureau of Customs of bodies of correspondence with collectors of customs, 1789-1907, and, from the customhouse in New York, of crew lists of vessels entering or clearing there, 1803-1919, and shipping articles for the crews of ships sailing thence, 1840-1914.

Other records recently transferred include correspondence of the Division of Insolvent National Banks, from the Office of the Comptroller of the Currency, 1865-1937; maps, many of which deal with the Seminole Indian wars in Florida, from the Office of the Chief of Engineers, 1817-1857; personnel records relating to the Department of Justice and the federal judiciary, 1870-1908; requisitions and contracts from the Bureau of Ordnance, 1899-1935; correspondence of the Forester's Office, 1883-1905; correspondence relating to entomological activities, from the Bureau of Entomology and Plant Quarantine, 1883-1924; and records of the International Fisheries Commissions established in 1908 and 1924.

Delaware

Mr. George H. Ryden, state archivist of Delaware, has contributed the following note on the new archives building of Delaware:

After being housed for some thirty-four years in very inadequate quarters, the Public Archives Commission of the state of Delaware has finally moved into

a new home at the capital city of Dover, which, it is hoped, will answer the needs of the commission for many years to come.

When the state legislature, two years ago, found it necessary to provide more room for the Corporation Division of the Secretary of State's Office, it decided to appropriate money for a new building which would be large enough to accommodate not only this division but the Public Archives Commission as well.

The building, which is called the Hall of Records, was completed and turned over to the state last December, but as furniture and equipment could not be secured until the General Assembly of 1939 appropriated money therefor, the offices and records of the Public Archives Commission were not transferred to the new quarters until the month of May.

The Hall of Records building is situated just north of Legislative Hall, which was erected about six years ago as the first unit of a group of capitol buildings to be erected just east of the historic Dover Green and the old State House. The western half of the first floor of the Hall of Records, with a separate entrance, and about two-thirds of the semi-basement floor, also with a separate entrance, will be occupied by the Public Archives Commission. Two large air-conditioned and fireproofed vaults have been built for the records. A beautiful room for research workers with a catalogue room connected, office and work rooms for the staff, and a lobby for exhibition purposes constitute the quarters.

The equipment includes a beautiful safe, built into an alcove behind sliding-doors in the lobby, where are preserved the famous Duke of York deeds of 1682 to William Penn for the land in Delaware, and the charter of 1683 from Charles II to the Duke of York relative to the same area. The work-room equipment includes a fumigation cabinet, photostatic machine, and dark room and repair-work facilities.

Although a state law for a few years past has made it mandatory upon custodians of records in all state, county, and municipal offices of Delaware to transfer each year to the state archives all records of historic interest that have attained the age of seventy-five years, it has not been possible heretofore for the Public Archives Commission to receive records of a date later than the year, 1850, due to lack of filing facilities. The records for the years 1851 to 1864, inclusive, can now be transferred, and each year hereafter there will be annual accretions as the records become seventy-five years old.

Being now for the first time in the possession of photostatic equipment, the Public Archives Commission can also take cognizance of another law which has heretofore not been enforced, namely the law which permits recorders of deeds to accept from the commission bound photostatic copies of their original deed records so that the latter, especially of the colonial period, may be preserved from further use by title searchers, the photostatic copies under the law having equal validity with the originals before the state courts.

The staff of the Public Archives Commission besides the state archivist consists of Assistant State Archivist Leon de Valinger, Jr., an office secretary, and a clerk. The commission of six members is bi-partisan, and consists of one man and one woman for each of the three counties, appointed by the governor for a term of four years. The president of the commission, Mrs. Henry Ridgely, of Dover, has been a member of the commission ever since it was organized in 1905. The other members of the present commission are Mrs. Francis de H. Janvier, of New Castle, Miss Laura S. Richards, of Georgetown, Dr. Frank S. Hall, of Dover, Mr. J. Ernest Smith, of Wilmington, and Mr. J. Edward Goslee of Millsboro.

Maryland

Dr. Morris L. Radoff, of Baltimore, has been chosen by the Maryland Hall of Records Commission to succeed the late Dr. James A. Robertson as state archivist. The new appointee is familiar with Maryland record problems and is known to record custodians throughout the state as a result of his work with the Historical Records Survey. Since 1936 he has been successively state editor, regional editor, and regional supervisor of that Survey. Dr. Radoff was born in Texas, and has an A.B. and an M.A. degree from the University of North Carolina and a Ph.D. in Romance languages from the Johns Hopkins University.

North Carolina

The North Carolina Historical Commission, Raleigh, has moved from its old quarters on the second floor of the State Administration Building, corner of Fayetteville and Morgan streets, to the first floor of the new State Office Building, corner of Edenton and Salisbury streets. The new quarters are considerably larger than the old, and have been designed to meet the commission's special needs.

The North Carolina legislature has appropriated $21,000 for the Historical Commission for each fiscal year of the 1939-1940 biennium. This is somewhat under the estimated appropriation for the present fiscal year.

Dr. A. R. Newsome, president of the Society of American Archivists, has published *The Presidential Election of 1824 in North Carolina.* This 202-page monograph, published by the University of North Carolina Press, is the first number of the revived and reorganized publication, "The James Sprunt Studies in History and Political Science," which will be issued twice each year under the direction of the department of history and the department of political science of the university.

Early in 1939, during the regular biennial session of the General Assembly of North Carolina, a statute relative to the preservation of archival material was amended to allow destruction or disposal of records without significance, importance, or value. The procedure is to be initiated on the advice and recommendation of the custodian in charge of the records. The approval or further advice and recommendation of the North Carolina Historical Commission is required before destruction or disposal may be authorized by the Council of State. The disposal of papers of local governmental units is to be regulated by a similar procedure, the difference being that the local unit is delegated the final authority. An important clause of this statute authorizes the North Carolina Historical Commission to make such rules and regulations as are necessary to carry out the provisions of the act.

Mississippi

Recent accessions to the Mississippi Department of Archives and History include twenty-four volumes of records from the office of the attorney-general. Of these, eleven are opinions of the attorney-general for the periods February 1, 1893-April 28, 1893; June 22, 1894-September 19, 1895; and January 15, 1900-September 2, 1930. Four volumes cover the record of charters from February 9, 1910 to December 21, 1932. Six are of the Supreme Court docket from the October term, 1903, to the October term, 1910. The remaining three volumes are records of the civil and criminal dockets.

Mississippi Senate Journals (six volumes) represent another important addition to the department. The earliest of these is for the fourth legislative session, January 1, 1821-February 10, 1821, and the latest is of the eighth session, January 3, 1825-February 4, 1825.

Additions to the manuscript collections include certain papers, of Brigadier General Thomas J. McKean, relating to the Battle of Corinth. Among the items are to be found field dispatches, general orders, telegrams, reports of commanding officers, and a casualty list.

Illinois

The Honorable Edward J. Hughes, secretary of state and state librarian, announces the establishment of archives interneships in the Archives Division of the Illinois State Library. Three months' interneships will be offered each spring beginning in 1940. These are open to candidates for the Ph.D. degree in history, political science or manuscripts curatorship, at an Illinois university, on nomination by the head of the department in which the respective thesis fields may lie. Applicants must have completed at least one-half year's residence work in that field beyond the level of the Master's degree. They must also present as prerequisites, courses in historical methodology and bibliography, public documents, and certain theoretical and historical courses in archives and

the auxiliary science of manuscript curatorship. Practical experience during interneship will be supplemented by lectures on archival technique and governmental organization. No entrance or tuition fees will be charged the student and no salary paid by the state. Internes will be expected to conform to regulations and hours of work of the Illinois State Library.

The University of Chicago, through its departments of history and political science and its Graduate Library School, is prepared to offer a curriculum designed to give a well balanced background for students planning to enter archival work. For fuller particulars relating to courses offered, consult the announcements of the University of Chicago for the year 1939-1940.

ABSTRACTS OF ARCHIVE PUBLICATIONS

Western Europe

The Netherlands

Nederlandsch Archievenblad, XLVI, no. 1 (1938)

Officiëel Gedeelte (Official section).

Naamlijst der leden van de Vereeniging van Archivarissen in Nederland (Roster of the members of the Association of Dutch Archivists). Pp. 1-6.

Mededeelingen van het bestuur (Communications from the board). P. 6.

A statement of the names of new members and one item from the treasurer.

Verslag van de zeven en veertigste algemeene vergadering (Report of the forty-seventh general meeting). Pp. 7-8.

As part of the routine business of the meeting (held at Amsterdam) was the decision to hold a special meeting at Utrecht in April or May, 1939, to discuss the handling of "new" archives. A paper, printed in this number, was read by G. W. A. Panhuysen on the subject of ninteenth-century archives in foreign countries.

Toespraak van den Voorzitter (Address of the president [H. P. Coster, *archivaris der gemeente*, Groningen]). Pp. 8-15.

The president reports various personnel matters: deaths, promotions, transfers, etc.; comments upon the remodeling of the Amsterdam archives building; mentions the establishment of a South African publication, *Archief-Jaarboek* (Archives yearbook), to be devoted to papers on archival materials and archival science; discusses the possible cooperation of archives with universities in providing firsthand acquaintance with archival materials to doctoral candidates in history; reports that the note sent last year to the governor-general of the Dutch East Indies on the subject of archival appointments is still unanswered; reports the progress of work on the *Index* (now published); comments on the progress of the work of the committee for the publication of the Guide to Communal Archives; expresses his own interest in the subject of "new" archives; suggests that the association publish a pamphlet on the subject as a preliminary aid to individuals; and concludes by saying that the problem of "new" archives has arrived and must be faced.

Afdeeling van Rijksarchiefambtenaren, verslag van de eenentwintigste afdeelingsvergadering gehouden 17 September 1938 in het Stedelijk Museum te Amsterdam (Section of officials from the archives of the kingdom, report of the twenty-first sectional meeting held September 17, 1938 in the Municipal Museum at Amsterdam). Pp. 15-16.

A routine statement of the meeting, the treasurer's report, and a comment upon the tendency now to fill vacancies.

Afdeeling van geemente- en waterschapsarchiefambtenaren, mededeeling van het bestuur (Section of commune and district archives officials, communication from the board). P. 16.

A brief statement from the treasurer.

Verslag van de twintigste afdeelingsvergadering op Zaterdag 17 September 1938 in het Stedelijk Museum te Amsterdam (Report of the twentieth sectional meeting on Saturday, September 17, 1938, in the Municipal Museum at Amsterdam). Pp. 17-18.

A brief statement of the year's activities of the section, the election of officers, the further discussion of the problem of loans to the Bureau of Historical Demography, the submission of a report on salary conditions in communal archives, and the detailed discussion of protection of archives against air attack. On this last matter it was agreed that the problem had to be solved separately for and by each archives depository.

Niet-officiëel Gedeelte (Nonofficial section).

VAN DE VENNE, J. M., [*hoofdcommies aan het Rijksarchief in* Limburg, Houthem], In memoriam Dr. P. M. H. Doppler, *oud-Rijksarchivaris in* Limburg. Pp. 18-21.

An appreciation of the work, with brief reference to important publications, of the man who spent his entire professional life in the service of the province.

STAPEL, F. W., In memoriam Dr. F. de Haan. Pp. 21-22.

An appreciation of the historical and literary work of the former archivist of the Dutch East Indies.

MARTENS [VAN SEVENHOVEN, A. H.], [*Rijksarchivaris in* Gelderland *en inspecteur van de gemeente- en waterschapsarchieven in die provincie,* Arnhem], In memoriam F. A. Hoefer. P. 23.

A brief statement of the archival interests of Major General F. A. Hoefer, former municipal archivist of Hattem, whose main claim to fame lies in other fields.

MARTENS, In memoriam Albert Oltmans. P. 24.

A brief appreciation of the work and publications of the former *hoofdcommies* in the Archives of the Kingdom in Gelderland.

S[MIT], J., [*hoofdcommies aan het Algemeen Rijksarchief,* The Hague], In memoriam Evert Jan van de Pol, 1882-1935. Pp. 25-27.

An appreciation by a colleague of the character and work of the late *hoofdcommies* at the Main Archives of the Kingdom.

VAN HINSBERGEN, PH., In memoriam Mej. M. I. van Soest. Pp. 27-29.

An appreciation of the character and work of the woman who started her professional life as a cataloguer, and who finally, as a specialist in indexing, reached the grade of *commies-chartermeester* in the Archives of the Kingdom at Utrecht.

PANHUYSEN, G. [W. A.], [*chartermeester* (*hoofdcommies*) *aan het Rijksarchief in* Limburg *en inspecteur van de gemeente- en waterschapsarchieven in die provincie,* Limmel-Maastricht], Zorg voor 19e eeuwse archieven in het buitenland (Care of nineteenth-century archives in foreign countries). Pp. 30-44, 44-51.

The author, who considers his paper only a cursory investigation, limits himself to a consideration of conditions in Belgium (pp. 31-33), France (pp. 33-38), and the United States (p. 38-43), "because an instructive climax lies in the thought and care which has been bestowed upon nineteenth-century archives in these three countries." (P. 31). He points out the deplorable conditions in Belgium which the Belgian Historical Commission tried to remedy, but whose report was not supported by law or new regulations. As concrete proof of the necessity of the latter in conjunction with the former he cites the new (1936) French law which is intended to carry out the provisions ineffectually stated in laws of 1855, 1887, and 1898. The text of this law (also published in *Archives et bibliothèques,* 1936) he not only gives in its entirety in an appendix, but he translates or paraphrases part of it, with comments, in his text. In his opinion, Article 9, which

regulates inspections, is the most important. He gives almost as much attention to an interpretative article by Léonce Celier in the periodical just named (1936, pp. 102-107), wherein the author says that "the future of archival science depends upon the relationship in which it stands to the administration which produces the archives." In the United States, the author points out, plans for a national archives began with McKinley's message to Congress, were supported by a report from the American Historical Association, and, eventually, congressional action. He then describes the present National Archives building, comments on American methods, and emphasizes the fact that America, which has only "new" archives, is giving them the same care as Holland is giving her "old" archives. Of all the American ideas, for a knowledge of which he has carefully scanned the annual reports of the Archivist, he thinks those on inspection and destruction of documents the most significant. The National Archives Act he quotes verbatim from the first annual report. He concludes for Holland, (1) that nineteenth-century archives are of great practical and scholarly importance, (2) that professional archivists should look after them, (3) that this can be done only when authority is expressly given by law, (4) that this fact will make possible the regular transfer of materials from administrative files to archives depositories, and (5) the regular cancellation of worthless items, (6) that a new and closer contact between archivists and administrative chiefs is obviously needed, and (7) that this extension of present functions need not annul their scientific character but can give them a deeper significance.

GRASWINCKEL, D. P. M., [*Rijksarchivaris aan het Algemeen Rijksarchief*, The Hague], Bescherming van archieven tegen oorlogsgevaar (Protection of archives against the hazards of war). Pp. 51-62.

After discussing the possibilities of air attacks and artillery bombardments, even of neutral nations, and the usual means of defense against them (concrete, sand bags, etc.), the author concludes that little real protection can be afforded against high explosive, that most gases are negligible in damage done to archivalia, and that the primary danger lies in fire from incendiary bombs. After arguing the several points in some detail he summarizes under four heads: (1) at least 10 cm. of concrete should be above the top floor of storage space, sand and water buckets should be conveniently located, a watch should be kept, and plans ready for removal of archives; (2) archives should be removed from the building either to cellar storage, or to farther interior points if the site is in danger of enemy occupation, and detailed plans for the requisition of vehicles and personnel should be ready; (3) materials should be ready for the neutralization of archivalia contaminated with mustard gas and others of similar nature; (4) new archives depositories should be erected on the outskirts of big cities, well removed from other administrative buildings likely to be targets.

HAGA, A., [*chartermeester* (*hoofdcommies*) *aan het Rijksarchief in* Overijssel, Zwolle], Uitleening van doop-, trouw-, en begraafboeken (Lending baptismal, marriage, and burial records). Pp. 62-65.

The author, who refers to the remarks on the lending of baptismal, marriage, and burial records by A. H. Martens van Sevenhoven (*Ned. Arch.* XLV, 11-), who says that the present practice often results in vain searches by investigators who come to the original depository, believes that the immediate remedy for the trouble can be found in the existing decree of September 2, 1919, which provides that a loan may be refused when materials are needed at the original depository. Investigators could save themselves all inconvenience by inquiring beforehand about the availability of materials. However, unless present regulations are changed, the author, in unison with Martens van Sevenhoven, believes nothing can be done to prevent needless lending; i.e., when simple ques-

tions could be answered merely by directing an inquiry to the archivist in charge. He suggests that a new regulation be prepared which would require the purpose and need of the investigator to be declared to the archivist of the original depository. Much would be gained by this procedure, and the only disadvantage would be the increase in correspondence.

VERBURGT, J. W., Les archives des Eglises Wallonnes; discours prononcé à la réunion des Députés des Eglises Wallonnes assemblés à Groningue, le 13 juin 1938 (The archives of the Walloon churches; a speech delivered at the meeting of the deputies of the Walloon churches assembled at Groningen, June 13, 1938). Pp. 65-73.

The author defines archives as "the whole body of documents written, drawn, or printed received ex officio or prepared by an authority in so far as those documents were intended to remain under the protection of that authority." After enumerating the six categories (mostly local) of Walloon church archives, the author describes the general archives containing the proceedings and acts (secret) of the synod, "containing an infinity of extremely interesting facts on the origin, discipline, and history of the Reformed Church of Holland in general." These archives were deposited in 1790 at the church in Leyden, and transferred in 1852 to the library created in that year, and administered by the *Commission de l'histoire et de la bibliothèque Wallonne* since 1893. The scattered records are largely of defunct churches, in many diverse places. The search for these is vigorously being pursued, for they contain the essentials of local histories. All Walloon church records should be inventoried, those inventories combined and a general inventory prepared therefrom in the present scientific manner. The author concludes by proposing a commission (1) to preserve the archives, (2) to find archives of defunct churches, (3) to inventory the records of the Walloon church in general, and of each church in particular.

Boekbespreking (Book review). Pp. 73-80.

This section includes an analysis[1] of the first numbers of THE AMERICAN ARCHIVIST.

Berichten (News and notes).

This section contains the usual miscellany; e.g., local personalia, general semi-official news, news of foreign archives, etc. The most extensive item is that about an article by F. R. J. Verhoeven in *Het Koloniaal Tijdschrift* (Sept. 1938) on provincial and local archives in the Dutch East Indies, in which the author deals with the problem of safe preservation of old archives, of finding suitable storage space, of deciding upon rules for cancellation and destruction, and describes the various rules and plans now prescribed—all in narrative fashion.

LESTER K. BORN

[1] See the "Shorter Notices" in the current issue of THE AMERICAN ARCHIVIST for a translation of this analysis.

ABSTRACTS OF ARCHIVE PUBLICATIONS

Eastern Europe

Poland

Archeion, XV (1937-1938)

Archiwalia Powstania Styczniowego w Archiwach Państwowych (Archival materials relating to the January uprising in the state archives). Pp. 1-9.

A report of a conference of the Society of History Patrons held in Warsaw, January 21-23, 1938, commemorating the seventy-fifth anniversary of the January uprising of 1863. The article contains valuable information on the large volume of documents relating to this historic event which are preserved in the state archives of Warsaw, Wilno, and Grodno, as well as documents concerning political exiles in the state archives of Łwow and Poznań.

Bachulski, Alexy, Archiwa gospodarcze (Business archives). Pp. 10-25.

The author bases his historical study of Polish economic and social life on official documents preserved in the state archives. Inasmuch as the archives of large industries are not accessible to Polish historians, making it impossible to comprehend economic conditions fully without recourse to these documents, the author urges the organization and establishment of business archives at Łodz, the industrial center of Poland. German, French, Swiss, Dutch, and American (the activities of the Boston Business Historical Society) examples of efforts for the preservation of business archives are cited.

Wareżak, Jan, Archiwum Zakładów Przemysłowych Ludwika Geyera w Łodzi (Archives of the industrial establishments of Ludwik Geyer in Łodz). Pp. 26-34.

Moraczewski, Adam, Sprawa przekazywania akt administracji rządowej do archiwów Państwowych w świetle obowiązujących przepisów (The problem of transferring administrative files to the state archives in compliance with official regulations). Pp. 35-48.

The author discusses the importance of transferring official administrative files to the state archives in accordance with regulations governing the selection and transfer of files as applied in six central administrations: the ministries of Public Welfare, of the Interior, of Finance, of Foreign Affairs, of Justice, and of the Chief Commandant of State Police.

Manteuffel, Tadeusz, Brakowanie akt w świetle ankiety Międzynarodowego Instytutu Współpracy Umysłowej (The weeding of files from the standpoint of the inquiries of the International Institute for Intellectual Co-operation).[1] Pp. 49-57.

The large volume of records produced by contemporary administrative offices makes the weeding of files one of the most important problems of modern archival science. Because of the lack of space there can be no permanent preservation of this entire production. Upon the manner in which this weeding is accomplished depends whether our archives will perform their duty successfully by leaving to succeeding generations source materials of full value, or will preserve in their storerooms for posterity only accidental fragments of archival *fonds* ignorantly, or even carelessly selected.

Today, when the weeding of files is becoming the main subject of discussions and consultations not only among archival authorities but also in administrative offices, it is considered timely to acquaint the readers of *Archeion* with the manner in which this interesting problem has been approached in other European countries.

[1] The valuable assistance of Miss Wanda Fernand, of the Historical Records Survey, in translating this article is gratefully acknowledged.

The International Institute for Intellectual Co-operation in its questionnaire devoted three questions (9, 10, and 11) to the problem of weeding files, the results of which were published in 1934 in *Guide International des Archives, Europe:*

9. How is the weeding of obsolete files accomplished? On whose initiative? Is the weeding performed by an archivist or by some other authority?

10. Is it forbidden to weed files prior to a certain date? What is that date?

11. Are there lists indicating the categories of files subject to weeding after a designated period of time?

Despite the apparent clarity of these questions, practice proved that they were variously interpreted by the experts interrogated. The *Guide* of the International Institute for Intellectual Co-operation contains forty-one replies. If we omit Poland, which will not be taken into account in this article, and eight small countries (Albania, Andorra, Ireland before 1921, Ulster, Liechtenstein, San Marino, Wales, and the Norman Islands), thirty-two replies remain which may be divided into three groups.

The first group, including Lithuania, Latvia, and Portugal, omitted answers to questions relating to weeding. Lithuania gave the parenthetical information, that this problem was not yet of moment in that country because of the short existence of its state administration.

The second group, composed of Greece, the Irish Free State, Yugoslavia, and Turkey, sent replies formulated in such a general manner as to involuntarily convey the impression that these countries do not have any fixed regulations for weeding files, each case being treated as it comes up.

The third group represents twenty-five countries, which have put the matter of weeding files into regulations of one kind or another. As the experts replying to the questionnaire did not interpret the questions uniformly, the answers given by them do not resolve the matter and in some cases leave the most important part of the problem unexplained. Therefore the conclusions formulated on the basis of that inquiry can not be considered final.

Of primary importance is the question, whether or not there are general regulations concerning the weeding of files in all state offices. Only three countries, Czechoslovakia, Estonia, and Italy, replied in the affirmative. As Czechoslovakia stated that suitable regulations are in process of formulation, only two replies, the Estonian and Italian, remain.

The question of weeding files was taken up in a very consistent manner by the Estonian regulations. They provide for the division of all administrative files into three categories. The first includes files of permanent value; the second, files which are to be preserved for a term of five to twenty years; and the third, files which may be destroyed before the expiration of five years. The offices are required to weed out of their registries files of the third category, sending the files in the other two categories, after the expiration of five years, to the state archives which serves as a central depository for files. After fifteen years the state archives will transfer the files in the first category to the Central State Archives for permanent preservation, and will destroy the files in the second category. However, neither courts nor civil offices are subject to these regulations, and not all ministries have adopted them. Detailed regulations which are being worked out will define the exact procedure for transferring and weeding files.

The weeding of files has been discussed in Italy on the principle that only files intended for permanent preservation are to be transferred to the state archives. Consequently, the weeding of files must take place prior to their transfer to the proper archival establishment. This function is intrusted to a commission, which in the central authorities is composed of two higher officials of the department whose files are subject to appraisal, and the director of the Archive of the Kingdom; and in the sphere of the constituent

authorities, of active or retired officials of the given divisions, and the director of the district archive. The place of the officials may be taken by experts who are not on the staff of the administrative office in question. Lists of the files to be destroyed are sent to the Ministry of the Interior for approval in the case of central authorities; and to the proper provincial ministries, if they concern other authorities. The Ministry of the Interior at the request of the Permanent Archives Commission, and in doubtful cases, of the full Archives Council, decides which of the weeded files should be burned, which made into paper, and which sold as waste paper. Files of permanent value are transferred to the proper state archive after the lapse of ten years.

In addition to these two regulations of a general character which include, in theory if not in practice, all state administrative offices, a series of other regulations of more or less limited scope should be mentioned.

In England government departments (corresponding to our ministries), with the exception of the Department of India, and the Supreme Court, must obtain the opinion of a special Inspecting Officers' Committee, in which the Public Record Office is represented, before weeding their files. A list of files to be destroyed is submitted to Parliament for approval. As a rule, the weeding of files takes place before they are forwarded to the Public Record Office. A few years ago the custom of keeping samples of records destined for destruction in the Public Record Office was discontinued.

In Austria some of the administrative and judicial authorities had their own instructions relating to the weeding of files. For instance, in the War Ministry the files are weeded before they are transferred to the archives, and the destruction of the weeded material depends on the consent of the archival authorities.

In Belgium the weeding of administrative files may be performed only with the knowledge of the chief archivist of the kingdom, and the consent of the respective minister must be obtained for the destruction or sale of weeded material.

Bulgaria's reply consisted of the statement that the weeding of files is regulated by decision of the Council of Ministers.

The Danish reply was twofold, treating the weeding of files in the *Rigsarkiv* (State Archive) and in administrative offices separately. In the first case the decision is made entirely by the chief archivist. The proper offices after consultation with the archival authorities decide the second.

Finland treated the problem within the jurisdiction of state archives only and stated that it is not permitted to weed preserved administrative files without the consent of the interested offices.

The author of the French reply observes the same procedure, confining the problem of weeding files to archives only. In the National Archives the weeding of administrative files takes place with the consent of the transferring office but only after the request is approved by the Archives Council. In departmental archives the archivist must obtain the consent of three authorities: first, that of the office transferring the files, then that of the Departmental Council, and finally, that of the Minister of Education. Communal archives are subject to a similar procedure. Files destined for destruction are sold as waste paper with the stipulation that they be macerated. Before being handed over to the buyer, the records must be torn and mixed in the presence of an official representative. The French reply fails to explain whether or not the central administrations (ministries), which sometimes keep files for a great many years, do their own weeding.

Danzig's reply consists of the statement that the co-operation of archival authorities is required in weeding administrative files, these authorities acting in accordance with the procedure in force in Prussia.

In Spain the weeding of files has been regulated only by the Ministry of Finance for itself and its subordinate offices, and by the judiciary. In the Ministry of Finance the

weeding process is carried out every ten years, at which time unnecessary printed matter as well as files, at least thirty years old and having no administrative or historical significance, are subject to elimination. The commissions called upon to judge the value of the files consist of representatives of the proper archival establishments and of the administrative offices directly interested. The lists of files selected for elimination are approved by the chief authority, whereupon the records are sold as waste paper. The judiciary is subject to another procedure. Court records are kept for thirty years, as a rule, and are weeded only after that time has lapsed. This function is intrusted to a permanent commission, composed of representatives of the Appellate Court, of the public prosecutor's office, and of the bar. The secretary of the interested court is also officially a part of the commission. The list of the files to be destroyed is published in the official journal, for the purpose of giving the parties concerned an opportunity to enter a protest against the destruction of the files within ten days from the date of publication of the list. The materials weeded out are subject to incineration.

In The Netherlands the initiative for weeding files is given by regulation to the institution where they are preserved. Consequently, this may be either the archival establishment or the administrative office. In either case, however, there must be co-operation between the archival establishment and the office whose files are to be weeded.

The reply of Iceland refers only to the weeding of files preserved in an archival establishment. In accordance with regulations, the archivist submits his conclusions and recommendations regarding the destruction of files to the government for its decision.

In Luxembourg, the government in council determines which files are to be weeded and which are to be forwarded to the archives. The files in the second category are of permanent importance and may never be weeded.

This problem is solved in another way in Monaco, where the custodian of the Archives of the Court decides which files may be destroyed and which are to be preserved permanently.

The German reply states that the weeding of files still in administrative offices is decided by the respective ministries which have their own instructions in this regard. In every case the administrative authorities performing these functions act in strict agreement with the administrations of the respective state archives. The weeding of files in archival establishments, however, takes place only with the consent of the chief archival authorities.

In Norway the interested ministry decides on the weeding of files after securing the opinion of the director of the archives.

In Roumania, regulations permit government offices to weed files only after obtaining the consent of the Archives Council. It is also customary for the state archives to weed files at the time they are taken over by them.

The same principle is followed in Scotland also, where up to the present time there are no regulations governing the weeding of files in administrative offices.

In Switzerland federal offices as a rule, and cantonal offices only in principle perform weeding of files at the time they are transferred to the archives. Files located in an archival establishment may be weeded only after obtaining the consent of the office which transferred them.

The Swedish regulations permit the administrative offices to weed files only upon order of higher authorities given in agreement with the archival administration. So far no general principles have been established there determining what categories of files are subject to weeding.

The Vatican's attitude was the only one of its kind, forbidding in general the weeding of files located in the archives. The reply does not make clear whether or not this ban also extends to the offices of the Vatican State.

The Magyars have no uniform instructions as yet on weeding of files. Of the central

authorities, the Ministry of War alone has its own regulations according to which weeding is performed by a commission appointed *ad hoc*. Local authorities submit recommendations for weeding of files to the Ministry of the Interior for approval, which in turn secures the opinion of the National Archives before making a decision. On the other hand, the weeding of files has been uniformly regulated for the judicial authorities (lower courts, appellate courts, public prosecutors' offices, notaries) as well as for the Accounting Office. The reply does not give fuller information about these regulations. The regulations, in force since 1902 in the departmental administrations, order the official transacting a case to state after its completion if its files should be kept for permanent or only temporary preservation. Files of temporary significance are weeded, according to their nature, after ten or thirty-two years.

The reply of the U.S.S.R. does not go beyond the statement that statutes relating to the organization of archives of the various Soviet republics contain provisions concerning the weeding of files and that these provisions forbid the destruction of files by offices without obtaining the consent of the proper archives in advance.

It would be interesting to ascertain if, and to what degree, individual regulations governing the weeding of files facilitate the performance of this difficult function by carefully defining records of permanent value. First place is assumed in this respect by the date limit which must not be passed when destroying record-material. Relatively few countries have introduced it into their regulations, and the differences existing in the individual instructions are considerable. England, for instance, accepts the year 1660; Bulgaria, not formally but usually, the date on which its independence was regained; Denmark, 1848; France, in departmental archives, 1800, in communal archives, 1830; the Netherlands, 1814; Monaco, 1800; Wurttemberg, 1806; Hungary, 1800; Italy, not formally but usually, 1861; U.S.S.R., in the Russian republic, 1825; the Ukrainian, 1860; in the Asiatic republics, the date of their union with Russia.

Also, relatively few countries undertook the task of elaborating lists of files giving the category in which they should be included during weeding operations. The following have such lists: Austria (but only for courts and a few administrative offices), Denmark, Estonia, France (for departmental and communal archives), The Netherlands (for some administrative offices), Switzerland (for the archive in Zürich), Italy, and the U.S.S.R. Czechoslovakia and Sweden have started work on such lists.

The picture presented by the archival questionnaire in the matter of weeding files does not look very bright. Only in a few countries has this question been solved satisfactorily; in most of them it has been settled extemporaneously and consequently not always in the best manner. Nevertheless, the data obtained by means of the questionnaire is valuable information, which may be adapted in many instances to our own needs.

MANTEUFFEL, TADEUSZ, Archiwum Narodowe Stanów Zjednoszonych Ameryki Północnej (The National Archives of the United States of North America). Pp. 58-64.

A history of the organization of the National Archives and an analysis of its actual state, based on the first and second annual reports of the Archivist of the United States and other publications of the National Archives.

HEJNOSZ, WOJCIECH, Kilka uwag o archiwistach i bibliotekarzach (Some observations about archivists and librarians). Pp. 65-74.

The author favors an association of archivists within the Polish Historical Society in commenting upon the views of Dr. M. Łodynski, director of the National Library at Warsaw, who addressed an appeal in *Przeglądzie Bibliotecznym*, XI (1937) to Polish archivists and librarians to form a joint society.

GRONIOWSKI, ST. A., O wspólny związek archiwistów i bibliotekarzy polskich (For a common alliance of Polish archivists and librarians). Pp. 75-90.

This article expresses a viewpoint opposed to that of the preceding article and advocates the organization of a joint society of archivists and librarians on the premise that their scholarly and professional interests are closely allied.

REPORTS

Sprawa archiwów w Łotwie i Estonii. Na marginesie Zjasdu historyków bałtyckich w Rydze (Archives in Latvia and Estonia; in connection with the Conference of Baltic Historians in Riga). Pp. 135-140.

At the First Conference of Baltic Historians held August 15-20, 1937 in Riga, Poland was officially represented by Dr. Józef Siemieński, director of the Central Archive of Ancient Documents at Warsaw. This article is his report of the proceedings of the conference and his visits to the archives at Riga, Latvia and Tartu, Estonia.

Sprawozdanie z działalności Wydziału Archiwów Państwowych w roku 1936 (Report of the activities of the Division of State Archives for the year 1936). Pp. 141-153.

The report of the Division of State Archives, the administrative unit of the Ministry of Religious and Public Instruction, of its official activities during the year 1936.

Sprawozdanie z działalności Archiwów Państwowych. Rok 1936. Na podstawie materjałów dostarczonych przez poszczególne Archiwa Państwowe opracował Antoni Rybarski (Report of the state archives for the year 1936. Compiled by Antoni Rybarski on the basis of materials furnished by individual state archives). Pp. 154-208.

A summary report of the activities of sixteen Polish state archives during 1936 on (1) the arrangement and inventorying of *fonds;* (2) changes in contents of *fonds* (by accession, exchange, and diminution of files); (3) research and reproduction of documents, with a statistical analysis of services rendered giving source of request (official, institutional, or private) and type of inquiry (scholarly, proprietary, genealogical, or miscellaneous); and (4) scholarly productivity of archives personnel, listing subjects of research and titles of published works.

Sprawozdanie za rok 1936 z prac Komisji Odbiorczo-Zdawczej do wykonania układu archiwalnego polsko-niemieckego (Report for the year 1936 of the Commission of Reciprocal Returns for the execution of the Polish-German archival agreement). Pp. 209-211.

A report of the commission listing the quantity, chronological extent, and nature of the Polish archival materials received from Germany and German material returned by Poland during the year 1936.

Zwrot depozytów archiwalnych miast i wsi pomorskich (Restitution of archival deposits of towns and villages of Pomerania). Pp. 212-216.

A list of the archival materials returned to the state archive at Poznan which had been deposited in the Prussian State Archives in Gdansk by Pomeranian towns and villages prior to the World War.

Sprawozdanie za rok 1936 z prac Delegacji Polskiej do wykonania układu archiwalnego polsko-austriackiego (Report for 1936 of the Polish delegation for the execution of the Polish-Austrian archival agreement). Pp. 217-219.

A list of archival materials returned by Austria and Poland during 1936 in accordance with the provisions of the Polish-Austrian archival agreement.

In addition to the articles noted above, this issue contains a list of books and journals received in exchange for *Archeion* during 1933-1937; summaries of the contents in the French language; and an index to *Archeion*, volumes 1 to 15 inclusive (1927-1937-1938) in Polish and French, arranged by subject and author, and compiled by Adam Moraczewski.

Instruction[2]

for the special registration of separate documents in the state archives of U.S.S.R. (in the development of Order No. 100, December 16, 1938, of the Central Archival Administration of the U.S.S.R. and R.S.F.S.R.).

Sec. 1. To special registration are subject archival materials:

a) relating to outstanding politicians, public men, and statesmen; prominent scientists, artists, military men; and other historical personages;

b) original documents of the revolutionary movement and original state records having the significance of important literary historical monuments of exclusively scholarly value;

c) ancient historical monuments.

Sec. 2. In relation to historical personages (Sec. 1 *a*) for special registration are to be taken:

a) holographs, that is, documents autographically written by a given person, even though not bearing his signature (if authorship is definitely established); documents, not written by a given person autographically but signed by him; documents containing original resolutions of a given person, his editorial corrections, notations, etc., and also documents without holographic indications but marked with the name of a given person (as author of telegrams, telephonograms, orders, etc.);

b) personal documents of a given person (diplomas, testimonials, certificates, etc.);

c) documents, relating to the social, legal, or public status of a given person (protocols of election to public duties, of conferring of scholarly degrees and honorary positions, diaries, entries in class registers, in parish registers, etc.) and also official (school, service and other testimonials of a given person, his characteristics, etc.);

d) documents, not relating to the indicated categories (for example, letters to a given person, letters about a given person, official papers, photographs, drawings, etc.) which will be recognized by the appropriate central archival administration after presentation by the director of the proper archives are subject to special registration depending upon their individual importance.

Sec. 3. From among the original documents of the revolutionary movement and original state records (Sec. 1 *b*) are subject to special registration:

a) documents, of salient social-historical import (basic records about the establishment of revolutionary authority, and other revolutionary decrees, declarations, orders, reports of revolutionary staffs and armed volunteer forces, appeals, proclamations, etc.);

b) state records of constitutional character: charters of Moscovite tsars, grand princes and other rulers; charters of Tatar khans and central Asiatic rulers; decisions of rural assemblies, of boyar dumas, of holy synods, codes of law, codices, and other analogous documents having outstanding social-historical significance; international records of all denominations (conferences, treaties, instruments, conventions, protocols, declarations, etc.), and also all materials (written and graphed) of the commission on the determination of state boundaries.

[2] Translated from *Arkhivnoe Delo* (Archival Science), Official Section, XLVIII, 144-148 (1938), official journal of the Main Archival Administration of the People's Commissariat of the Interior of U.S.S.R.

Sec. 4. From among ancient historical monuments (Sec. 1 *c*) are subject to special registration; (*a*) all documents to the fifteenth century inclusive; and (*b*) documents of outstanding social-economic, political and cultural-historical import of the sixteenth to eighteenth centuries, if these documents are not indicated for registration by Sec. 3 *b*.

Documents indicated in point *b* are subject to special registration by authorization of the central archival administration of the constituent republic upon presentation by the appropriate central state archive, or the territorial or regional archival administrations.

Sec. 5. Special registration of archival documents is to be performed: (*a*) by the Moscow and Leningrad central state archives in accordance with annual plans worked out and established by them, and approved by the Central Archival Administration of U.S.S.R.; (*b*) by other central and, also, local state archives—in accordance with the annual plans of the proper central state archives and territorial or regional archival administrations, approved by the central archival administrations of the proper constituent republics.

Until the approval of the indicated plans of special registration, it is forbidden to start the registration.

The Central Archival Administration of constituent republics is obligated not later than December 1 of each year (beginning with 1938) to present to the Central Archival Administration of U.S.S.R. for each state archives separately, lists of historical personages and of categories of historical documents, predetermined and approved by the plans for special registration for the following year.[3]

Sec. 6. In the development of the plans of special registration it is necessary to keep in mind that the work of special registration should not be conducted to the detriment of the work of technical betterment, the listing of *fonds*, and the inventorying of archival materials, by which the original significance is preserved.

In first sequence, documents relating to prominent historical personages (Sec. 2) are subject to registration.

Sec. 7. For the solution of all doubtful problems arising during the course of the special registration of documents, the directors of central state archives, and administrators of territorial and regional archival administrations should turn to the proper central archival administrations. The central archival administration of constituent republics must in turn refer, in case of necessity, for the solution of their doubtful cases to the Central Archival Administration of U.S.S.R. Also, the Central Archival Administration of U.S.S.R. approves the reports of the central archival administrations of constituent republics of the extension of the special registration of categories of documents not foreseen in this instruction.

Sec. 8. The special registration of documents is conducted by entering in a special inventory journal the data about each registered document in the following order:

a) running number;
b) denomination (genus) of document (letter, protocol, report, photograph, etc.), number and date of document;
c) name of author (correspondents);
d) brief summary of document;
e) number and title of *fonds;*
f) number of [descriptive] list; archival inventory of unit of preservation; and num-

[3] The categories of documents are classed in the lists according to specific events to which they relate, and when this is not possible, then in chronological order, or by type of material (for example, state records and other government documents of the first quarter of the eighteenth century). Events should be shown in the lists as specifically as possible, for example, "The December Insurrection of 1905 in Moscow" and not "Revolution of 1905."

ber(s) of pages of the unit (this information is entered in code, of which the first number designates the list; the second, the archival number; and the last, the number(s) of pages; for example: code 20-30-20/24, means list No. 20, item of preservation No. 30, pages 20/24);

g) condition of the document (state of preservation);

h) date of special registration of document;

i) remarks (in this column, when necessary, are shown external peculiarities of documents, for example, "parchment, with pendant wax seal in carved ivory case on a silk cord").

Columns are ruled in the journal on an open sheet (that is, across the width of two pages).

Sec. 9. In the inventory journal of special registration, special sections are allotted: (*a*) for documents of historical personages (Sec. 2); (*b*) for documents of the revolutionary movement (Sec. 3 *a*); (*c*) for state records (Sec. 3 *b*); and (*d*) for ancient historical monuments (Sec. 4). Under the sections of historical personages entries of documents are grouped according to persons; to this end, special pages are devoted to each person ("personal account" of a person). Under the section of ancient historical monuments entries of documents are grouped by centuries, for which purpose special subsections are made for each century. For the remaining sections of the inventory journal, it is not necessary to introduce internal subsections.

Sec. 10. In the section of historical personages, documents are entered by individual consecutive numbers for each person; in the remaining sections and subsections by general consecutive numbers for each section not having internal subsections, and for each subsection.

In the registration of documents relating to historical personages, at the end of each completed open sheet of the inventory journal, the following inscription is placed: "Among the documents entered in the above list so many (written out and in code) are holographs."

Sec. 11. Every section and subsection of the inventory journal receives an appropriate heading. In the section of historical personages a heading is also made for each personal account. In that heading is entered: the surname, Christian name, and patronymic of the person (in full, and not in initials); nature of the activity defining the historical significance of the person (for example: "revolutionary," "author and revolutionary," "military leader," etc.); year, month, and day of his birth; and for the deceased, the year, month, and day of demise, also.

Sec. 12. The inventory journal of special registers should be numbered in sequence, laced, and sealed with the seal and signature of the director of the archive. In the front of the journal is placed a table of contents, sections and subsections, and within the sections of historical personages an index of personal accounts, also, with an indication of the pages of sectional, subsectional, and personal accounts in accordance with the inventory journal.

Sec. 13. In proportion to the completion of the inventory journal of special registration of documents, it is recommended that systematic card indexes be compiled of each section and subsection of the inventory journal.

Sec. 14. At the end of each year (beginning with 1938) state archives compile data cards for the documents which were taken during a given year for special registration. The cards are compiled separately for each historical personage and for each category of documents, covered by sections or subsections of the inventory journal (Sec. 9). On the card should be entered:

1) For documents of historical personages: (*a*) surname, Christian name, and

patronymic of the historical personage; (*b*) character of his activity (see Sec. 11); (*c*) title of *fonds* in which the documents occur, and the number of registered documents by each *fonds;* (*d*) name of the archive in which the documents are registered;

2) For other documents: (*a*) titles of categories of documents (according to the inventory journal); (*b*) title of the *fonds* in which the documents are found, and the number of registered documents in each *fonds;* (*c*) title of the archive, in which the documents are registered.

The size of the data card is that of the library card (7, 5 × 12, 5).

Sec. 15. State archives transmit data cards to the Central Archival Administration of their constituent republic (in appropriate cases—through autonomous-republican, territorial, and regional archival administrations) and to the Central Archival Administration of U.S.S.R. (in appropriate cases—through the central archival administrations of its republic).

Sec. 16. Data cards are grouped in registral sections of central archival administrations of U.S.S.R. and of constituent republics by names of historical personages and categories of documents (Sec. 9) and serve to assemble information regarding the archives and the quantities in which specially registered documents occur relating to one and the same historical personage or to one and the same category.

It is recommended that central archival administrations of autonomous republics, territorial and regional archival administrations concentrate data cards of archives in archival establishments under their jurisdiction and in their own registral apparatus.

OLGA P. PALMER